The Nation.

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The Week.

THE nomination of William E. Russell as their candidate for Governor by the Democrats of Massachusetts for the fifth time calls national attention once more to a remarkable political career. In four successive campaigns Mr. Russell has been the leader of his party—twice defeated and then twice successful; and each year he has borne himself with such credit that, whether presented to the convention as a private citizen or as the Executive, he has been renominated with entire unanimity and with the greatest enthusiasm. But the hold which Gov. Russell has secured upon his party is less remarkable than the place which he has won in the respect and affection of the people, without distinction of party. There have always been more Republicans than Democrats in Massachusetts, and yet he has twice been elected Governor. Gov. Russell's first success in 1890 was ascribed by the Republicans to "the campaign of misrepresentation regarding McKinley prices," and it was confidently predicted that, after a year's experience of the new tariff and a twelvemonth of reflection upon the folly of voting for Democrats under any circumstances, he would be repudiated in 1891. But election day came, and although the voters turned out in numbers never before equalled in any save a Presidential-year, Gov. Russell was reëlected by nearly as large a plurality as in 1890. In each year he owed his success to the votes of thousands of men who were Republicans and who supported the Republican State ticket as to all the minor offices, thus electing Republicans as Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, etc.

Moreover, Gov. Russell has helped his party as much as he has helped himself. He could not carry the rest of the Democratic State ticket into office with him, because there were a good many thousand Republicans who would not support any one else on that ticket; but under his leadership the Democratic party came much nearer carrying Massachusetts last year than ever before happened when there was anything like a full vote. Here are the figures on the Lieutenant-Governorship in the last three elections:

	Dem.	Rep.
1889	112,030	132,821
1890	130,630	137,160
1891	145,865	157,216

The total vote in 1891 fell only about 20,000 short of the Presidential record in 1888, and had never before been approached in a purely State contest, and yet the Republican plurality, which had been above 32,000 for Harrison and as high as 37,000 for several State officials elected on the same day, was less than 12,000 for an exceptionally popular Lieutenant-Governor running for reëlection.

Dr. William Everett of Quincy has again gallantly taken the field against Mr. Cabot Lodge in the Seventh Congressional District of Massachusetts. At the last election in 1890 he cut Lodge's majority down from 5,294 to 1,023. It is not too much to hope that he may this year wipe out this little remnant altogether. In 1890, however, Lodge was preaching the beauties of dearness. The more a man paid for his clothes and furniture, Mr. Lodge intimated, the better off he was, and he spoke scornfully of cheapness as a low foreign invention. Of course this silliness must have hurt him greatly in addressing sane audiences. This year he may possibly preach the beauties of cheapness. In 1890 he was maintaining that the McKinley Bill would raise prices; this year he may maintain that it has lowered prices. Now, although Mr. Lodge would be better off as an apostle of cheapness than he was as an apostle of dearness, he is, nevertheless, just the kind of man to be hunted down by Dr. Everett. Dr. Everett has a keen scent for both humbug and absurdity. Moreover, he is a powerful exponent of the true political gospel, ready, keen, lucid, and sincere. Lodge will not be comfortable when he hears his horn, and Dr. Everett has our heartiest wishes for his success.

Mr. George Ticknor Curtis, "the widely-known constitutional lawyer," has announced to Mr. Wilbur F. Wakeman, the "General Secretary of the American Protective Tariff League," that he is going to leave the Democratic party and vote for Harrison, because of the free-trade plank, he says, in the Democratic platform. But he also tells the unhappy Wakeman that "in future communications he will show that in laying duties on foreign products it is perfectly constitutional for Congress to lay them so as to encourage our American industries, and that a tariff for revenue only would bring ruin on the Government and upon the people." Now we are quite sure that this is far more than Wakeman bargained for or can stand. So we advise Mr. Curtis to have him "shadowed" to prevent his escape till he gets home on him with the "communications." What makes Wakeman's case a sad one is that he is doubtless already satisfied on the constitutional point, or ready to be convinced by a mere wink, whereas Mr. Curtis proposes that, before "owning up," he should submit to a process which may put his life in peril or at all events unhinge his reason.

The *Tribune* continues to derive a great deal of comfort from the sufferings of English operatives thrown out of work by the McKinley Bill. It had on Tuesday a man in Scranton, Pa., telling with great glee how "the town of Saltaire" "is literally dead now," and Sir Titus Salt, "whose cloth and plush manufactures are known the world over, is a ruined man." This is only an instance of the way "the McKinley Bill has crippled English industries." We can recall no parallel for this frame of mind which exults over the distress of others, except Tertullian's conception of the bliss of heaven, a large part of which, he thought, would consist in gloating over the torments of the damned. What a falling off has the baleful spirit of protection wrought in the American spirit, which used to pride itself on sympathy with the "oppressed of all nations"! Now we do our best to bring misery upon thousands of our fellow-beings, and then break out into rejoicings over their wretchedness.

It does not make this heathenish spirit any more Christian to show that it is mistaken as to its facts. The Boston *Journal of Commerce*, which cannot be accused of bias against protection, states in its issue of October 1:

> "One of the reasons for the liquidation of the house of Sir Titus Salt, Bart., Sons & Co., in England, is owing to the unprofitableness of the plush industry. Our tariff laws contributed somewhat to its unprofitableness, no doubt, by cutting off the American market, but the decrees of fashion have proved more potent in this instance."

It explains what it means by saying that the manufacture of seal plushes at Bridgeport, Conn., over which so many McKinley flourishes have been made, "has been given up because of changes in fashion." We read in the same paper that the August statement of the United States Consul at Bradford, Eng., shows that the value of exports to this country of worsteds and woollen goods showed an increase of nearly 48 per cent. over the same month a year ago. It will doubtless turn out to be true, in the long run, that the exultation of leading Republicans over the hunger and want they have caused in other countries, is without any foundation in fact; but that does not at all lessen the discredit which attaches to them for taking delight in what Christianity and civilization have agreed hitherto in asserting is a ground of delight only to devils in hell.

Two Democratic and two Republican judges of the five constituting the Supreme Court of Wisconsin have concurred in a decision annulling the apportionment act passed at the special session of the Legislature a few weeks ago, as a little earlier the same tribunal had overthrown the similar act passed at the regular session of the Legislature. The chief ground of the de-

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cision in each case is the evident failure to obey the constitutional requirement that the Legislature shall divide the State into districts as nearly equal in population as possible, one (Democratic) Senate district having barely 30,000 people, while another (Republican) had more than 65,000. This was the same ground upon which the Supreme Court of Michigan, Republican and Democratic judges concurring, annulled the gerrymander passed by the Democratic Legislature of that State at its regular session last year; Chief Justice Morse, who is now the Democratic candidate for Governor, declaring that "there is no higher privilege granted to the citizen of a free country than the right of equal suffrage, and thereby to an equal representation in the making and administration of the laws of the land." The greed of the dominant party in these two States has resulted in causing one special session of the Legislature in Michigan, and two in Wisconsin (as a second must now be convened), with the result of disgusting many doubtful voters with a party capable of such performances.

Outside those Republican managers who are ready to applaud any device which promises to help their party, the people of the United States, without distinction of party, will hope that the scheme to nullify the Australian ballot system in Indiana may fail. Elections in Indiana in Presidential years had become such a national disgrace that the whole country rejoiced over the adoption of the secret-ballot system by the Democratic Legislature of 1889. The Republicans bitterly opposed the reform at the time, and have never become reconciled to it, the President's home organ, the Indianapolis *Journal*, having recently complained that "the Republican loss in Indiana in 1890 was due not a little to the radical change in the method of voting." There is now a plot to have the Supreme Court declare the legislative apportionment of 1885 unconstitutional, and then have the Australian Ballot Law of 1889 set aside on the ground that the Legislature which enacted it was elected under that apportionment, and was therefore an illegal body. That the apportionment of 1885 was a bad gerrymander is notorious enough, but it would seem to be absurd to nullify all acts passed by all Legislatures elected under that apportionment. The Michigan Supreme Court did no such thing when a similar question was recently submitted to it. It decided that the gerrymander of the last Democratic Legislature was unconstitutional, and that the gerrymander of the Republican Legislature of 1885 should be annulled for the same reason; but it did not throw the State into inextricable confusion by declaring that all legislatures elected under that gerrymander were illegal bodies, and all acts passed by them null and void. We can hardly believe that the Indiana judges will do what is expected of them.

But what a commentary it is upon Republican professions in favor of "a free ballot" that the party is everywhere complaining of the Australian system, and is ready to adopt any possible expedient to overthrow it! In his speech at the Cooper Union "rally" last week, the candidate for Vice-President called for "the organized and the individual effort of active Republicans everywhere" to do various things—among them "to have the full Republican vote registered, and then to have it, in spite of the Australian ballot and other new difficulties, fully cast and fairly counted." The *Tribune* on Monday followed up this warning.

We observe that Republican organs in the East always put down North Dakota in the list of "sure Republican States." But candid Republican observers in the Northwest frankly admit that at best it is no better than a doubtful State, and that the chances now are in favor of its being carried against Harrison. The Republican majority sank from 14,071 in 1888 to only 6,535 in 1890, and this year there is an apparently harmonious fusion of all elements of the opposition. South Dakota is another State which is always put down as "sure Republican." It may prove to have been properly so ranked, but it should not be forgotten that in 1890 the Republicans cast only 44 per cent. of the total vote, and would have been beaten by nearly 10,000 majority if the Democrats and Independents had all supported one ticket. Fortunately for the Republicans this year, there is no such harmonious fusion of the opposition in South Dakota as in its northern neighbor. But these new States are unreliable, being more subject to "tidal waves" than older and more conservative commonwealths.

The Prohibitionists certainly have reason to feel encouraged over the full returns of the Maine election, which show that, while the Republican vote fell off from 79,405 in September, 1888, to 67,585, and the Democratic from 61,349 to 55,073, they increased their poll from 3,121 to 3,781, or a trifle more than one-fifth. This gain, it must be kept in mind, was made in a State where the Republican party was openly committed to the maintenance of prohibition. In almost every other State the Republicans have this year abandoned the Prohibitionists, so that this party may reasonably hope to increase its vote far more elsewhere than in Maine. In Iowa the Prohibitionists are greatly encouraged over the accession of ex-Attorney-General Baker, a lifelong Republican, and he says that he is receiving many letters from other old Republicans who approve his course and promise to keep him company. Hitherto the Prohibition party has not amounted to much in Iowa, casting only 1,362 and 962 votes in the last two gubernatorial elections, but this was because the Republicans in each of those campaigns were pledged to the maintenance of the prohibitory law. Now that they refuse longer to endorse the system, it seems reasonable to expect that they must lose heavily.

The decision of the Connecticut Supreme Court in the contested-election matter, which has been dragging along in that State for nearly two years, furnishes fresh evidence that our highest judicial bodies are not exempt from the influence of partisan political considerations. The Court divided on partisan grounds, all the Republican judges taking one side and all the Democratic judges the other, as the Supreme Court of the United States did in the electoral controversy of 1877. We have had an illustration of the same tendency in this State recently in the decision by one department of our General Term that the Apportionment Act of the last Legislature was unconstitutional, and the decision by another department of the same court that it was constitutional. The Connecticut decision seems to be even more partisan than the Republican contestants expected, for it goes to greater extremes than they have been going in their claims. The result ought to be useful in showing the people of the State the folly of adhering to the requirement of a majority over all for the election of a State officer. A plurality is all that is required to give the electoral vote of the State to a Presidential candidate, and it ought to be sufficient to give an election to a State candidate. Mr. Morris, the Democratic candidate in the last election, who received a plurality then, is again the candidate this year, and has announced his purpose to make his canvass on the plurality issue. The majority requirement is in Connecticut, as it is in Rhode Island, a Republican device for keeping the control of the State in Republican hands by making it possible for the Legislature to choose for Governor and other officers candidates whom the voters of the State have declined to elect.

We hope there is some wise purpose concealed in the plan of running a third municipal ticket this month, because there is no such purpose visible on the surface. If anybody sees a chance of success for such a movement, he ought to explain in detail the basis of his hopes. The better the candidate put up, too, the worse it would be for the city, because it would further familiarize the New York public with the helplessness of the respectable element in the voting population. It is not well to make respectability a laughing-stock too often. A great deal of missionary work needs to be done, in our estimation, and a great change needs to take place both in the public mind and in the press, before we can hope to see any real improvement in the city government. As far as appears,

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the present municipal government is about what the majority of the voters now desire, and, we were going to add, deserve. The election of 1890 made that point clear. It is common justice to add that Tammany has since then done rather better than was necessary. The improved pavement and the clean streets are more than the citizens had any right to expect. To let Mrs. Kinnicutt and her committee clean the streets was a pure act of grace. It has long been foreseen that no movement against Tammany would have any success this year unless Tammany broke with the party on the Presidential nomination, and this it has taken good care not to do. There is nothing novel in the situation. Tammany is the product of a certain condition of the public mind, and until there is some sign of a great change in this condition, naming third tickets against it is like making a sick man take violent exercise.

The "cholera scare" has, we are glad to say, now entered on the humorous stage with us. It has just reached Central America, where, of course, the people being in a lower state of civilization, it is somewhat worse than it was here. Accordingly, Nicaragua and some other States have "closed their ports on account of the feared invasion of the cholera." It is very diverting to find some of our papers denouncing this as "a needless embargo," and as "vexatious action taken through unreasoning fear of the cholera." The *Tribune's* despatches from Washington say that "in official circles this action of the Central American authorities is regarded as an unwarrantable exercise of authority," but we are pleased to hear that the Department of State "is not disposed to act arrogantly towards our Southern neighbor in the matter, but is rather disposed to adopt methods based on persuasion and reason to secure its object." "Here's richness," as Mr. Squeers observed. We thought the true doctrine was that the people who had the "cholera scare" were a law unto themselves; that persuading them or reasoning with them was an impertinence, and that they were at liberty to resort to any measures of protection for themselves, however desperate, cruel, or selfish, and that the only thing the people who scared them had a right to expect in case they killed them, was prompt cremation; and that their complaints were the growls of "kickers." The very best thing the State Department can do with these scared Central Americans is to send them Jenkins to carry on their quarantine. He is just the man for the place; but do not let us have any violence.

Bishop Potter made a neat and valuable addition to our cholera literature when he said at the close of his charge to the Convention on Thursday, apropos of special prayers against pestilence, "that such prayers are only an act of presumption unless along with them there goes that use of every approved method for the preservation of life and health which is the dictate of sound reason." He might have added that furious quarantine is not a proper supplement of such prayers. The history of quarantines shows that no pestilence has ever been kept out by them; but they have furnished in too many cases an excuse to semi-barbarous peoples for neglecting their drains, and their water supply, and their streets and alleys, and for failing to wash their filthy bodies and change their filthy clothing, all of which are "the approved methods for the preservation of life and health." Nobody who has not tried them—we speak under the correction of theologians—need flatter himself that praying against pestilence will do him any good.

The arrest of all the members of the Advisory Board of the Carnegie Mills strikers on the charge of high treason to the State of Pennsylvania is a novel and extremely interesting development. The warrant of arrest is issued by the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, and the basis of it is information afforded by a detective that the members of the Advisory Board are guilty of violating their duty and allegiance as citizens by moving and inciting insurrection and rebellion against the commonwealth. The maximum penalty for this offence is imprisonment for twelve years. The strikers claim that the arrest is simply a new move on the part of Mr. Carnegie's manager, Mr. Frick, to break down the strike and get the men back; his hope being that, by getting the members of the Advisory Board lodged in jail pending trial, he may be able to induce their followers to return to work. Whatever Mr. Frick's motive, the movement is a very interesting one, and we trust that the cases will be pushed to a trial in order that the courts may pass on the question involved. If the acts committed by the strikers at Homestead did not constitute insurrection and rebellion against the peace and welfare of the State, it would be difficult to say what would.

The new Sunday laws in Germany went partly into effect on July 1, and do not appear to be giving satisfaction. Their intention was to reduce the hours of labor on Sunday to a minimum and to secure a larger church attendance of working-people. They provided that in no case should Sunday work extend beyond five hours, while from ten to twelve in the morning and after two o'clock in the afternoon there should be no work whatever. In actual operation the effect seems to be to keep those workingmen who used to do a half-day's work on Sunday in their shops until two o'clock, instead of merely until noon as before, while they spend the time from ten to twelve not in church, but in beer-gardens and cabarets, till the embargoed hours pass and they can finish their work and go home. The church authorities in Berlin are already admitting that the laws have not increased the number of Sunday worshippers, though they have the number of Sunday tipplers.

Mr. Morley has come out with a letter indicating the way in which he intends to deal with the case of the "evicted tenants." He proposes to appoint a commission to inquire into the matter. This will doubtless keep the tenants quiet for the present, or at all events till Parliament meets, and give the Ministry at least breathing time. The figures he gives about the cost of extra police assistance at the evictions are very curious. The annual cost alone of this assistance is $225,000, or, during five years of Tory administration, $1,225,000—probably more than the total rental of all the estates on which the evictions occurred; and this does not include the legal expenses. One estate, probably the Clanricarde, has cost the country $65,000 since 1881 for assistance given to the landlord in rows with his tenants. If it be the Clanricarde estate, every newspaper in both England and Ireland was all the while denouncing the landlord for his inhumanity and injustice while he was living snugly in London and snapping his fingers at them and abusing Gladstone.

Renan's death is that of a man who had survived a good part of his own fame. The renown which the audacious heresies of his 'Life of Jesus' brought him thirty years ago was more expansive and penetrating than any he could win by mere learning, varied as his was, or style, charming as his came invariably to be. But the world, even the religious world, long since got over being shocked by the 'Vie de Jésus,' having to do with much more serious problems relating to primitive Christianity; and as soon as Renan's name ceased to be that of the *scandalum magnum* of his time, his peculiar fame began to decline. Nor can it be denied that his purely historical work has fallen under some discredit, when compared with the severer methods of his later contemporaries. One need but compare his Hibbert Lectures with Pfleiderer's to see the difference between his rhetorical treatment of antiquity and the German's patient reconstruction of the past. Moreover, the philosophical and dramatic and reminiscential writings of Renan's later years revealed an almost sensual element in his character that will not enhance his fame. What he will chiefly be remembered for is his long life of devotion to serious research, his boldness in attacking the religious prejudice, most of which he outlived, and the demonstration which he once more gave the world of the possibilities of the French language as an instrument of precision and beauty.

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THE GREATEST POLITICAL NECESSITY.

MORE than a year ago, in discussing the address printed in July, 1891, by the Philadelphia Independents, touching Quay's record as a politician, we took the liberty of controverting their assertion that "the fundamental fallacy" of the Quay theory of politics was "that public offices are spoils, the lawful property of the politicians who capture them, and by whom they are dispensed in their turn to their underlings as prizes of war." We said then:

"There is, however, another fallacy which lies lower still, to which the roots of Quayism run down, and from which it draws a large part of its sap and vitality. To mention it in Pennsylvania is, however, to discredit one's authority on all subjects as effectively as the authority of a philosopher would have been discredited in the Middle Ages by a denial of the existence of witches. But the truth must be spoken, nevertheless, even if here and there, and now and then, it produces a little nausea. This particular truth, too, is not so much an economic as a political truth. It affirms nothing as to the value of a tariff in building up industries or accumulating wealth. There is nothing in it inconsistent with the Pennsylvania industrial gospel. What it affirms is simply that you cannot, in a country of universal suffrage, have pure politics as long as prices are raised and lowered by legislation at every session of the Legislature. This system would eventually corrupt a community of angels. As long as the business man looks to Congress to provide a good market for his goods he will inevitably invest money in the high-tariff party, just as he would invest in a mill or in a coal mine, and he will give the money to the man who, he thinks, will put it where 'it will do most good.' That man will always be a Quay, and nothing but a Quay. The Quay will have under him a swarm of Delamaters, Wanamakers, Bardsleys, and Marshes to do his bidding, and blow his trumpet, and defend his methods. Politics, in short, will, under such conditions, inevitably become 'business' in the very lowest sense of that term. The party having won the Government by promising to enable everybody who gave money for the canvass to make a handsome profit on what they gave, the underlings who gave not money but work will claim the salaries of the public offices as *their* reward, and they will get them. They will not listen to the 'trust' doctrine from people who openly acknowledge that they themselves are in politics mainly and solely to increase their own incomes. And gradually the whole machinery of government will come to be looked on simply as the machinery of a mill is looked on, as investment of capital to be returned with interest, profit, and something for superintendence and wear and tear. Everything will be considered marketable and divisible among the stockholders—treasury funds, offices, contracts, pensions, subsidies; and the work of the Quays will be mainly the work of deciding who got in on 'the ground floor' and who on upper stories."

There is nothing, we affirm, which it now in this canvass behooves patriotic men to bear in mind so much as this. Nobody is more impressed than we are with the evil economic effects of the high tariff. Nobody sees more clearly than we do the importance of a sound currency, wholly delivered from party politics. But no thoughtful person can shut his eyes to the fact that nations might be both great and free and long-lived under a high tariff. More than this, nearly every great nation of modern times has experienced and has survived some sort of currency folly or absurdity. Currency madness always runs a certain short course, very like that of an individual spendthrift. The day of reckoning comes at last in the shape of a crisis in which everybody who thought himself rich suddenly finds himself poor, in which credit perishes, and the poor are thrown out of employment, and industry seems to go to rack and ruin. But such crises soon pass over, and the community which has gone through one of them goes to work again, fortified by its bitter experience, to repair its broken fortunes. Such experiences do not affect *character*. In fact, they often strengthen and purify it.

The greatest danger in American politics to-day, therefore, is not the tariff as an economic agency, nor the currency as "a craze"; the greatest danger is the venality in politics which the tariff steadily promotes, and by which the present Administration obtained power and is trying to keep it. One hears with astonishment every now and then upright and serious men console themselves with the reflection that President Harrison will, if reëlected, veto a free-coinage bill, and that the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, in case of President Harrison's death, would do the same thing. They forget that President Harrison's election was secured, undoubtedly with his knowledge, and certainly without his disapproval, by the purchase of votes, on an immense scale, through the instrumentality of a man of notoriously bad character, who made no secret of his methods, and that a seat in the Cabinet was given to one of Quay's agents as a reward for his activity in raising money for purposes of corruption. They forget, too, that venality is for a democracy a mortal disease. It bears about the same relation to a poor system of taxation and a shifting standard of value that malignant typhus bears to typhoid fever or measles. The deaths from it are about ninety per cent. of the cases. As soon as offices and legislation are put up for sale, and the money is used to open a market for votes, the *débâcle* in a popular government has begun.

We do not deny that there has always been, and that there probably always will be, more or less bribery at elections. The total abolition of the practice will never come until there is some great change in human nature. Every nation governed by universal suffrage will have to struggle against it, and be on its guard against it, just as every man, however sound his constitution, has to struggle and guard against disease. But this is an overwhelming reason why we should not only not tolerate any system of taxation which puts a premium on corruption, but inflict condign punishment on any highly placed man who has used corruption for his political advancement. President Harrison is such a man. He is the first American President who has obtained his office by open venality, just as Quay is the first Chairman of the National Committee of a great party who has figured as an open and successful distributor of a corruption fund, and Wanamaker the first American who has been honored with a seat in the Cabinet for raising the money which constituted the fund. The public has long been reprobating the practice of rewarding "work" with offices, but we are, in the case of the present Administration, asked to condone the bestowal of the offices for cash.

It will be observed, too, that there is no sign as yet in the present canvass of any repentance over the great scandal of 1888. The only sign of atonement to the public conscience is the withdrawal of Quay from the Chairmanship of the National Committee and from the supervision of the Republican canvass in this city. In the latter business, however, a more obscure rascal has been substituted for him in the person of "Dave" Martin, of the nature of whose skill and activity both the President and Mr. Wanamaker, and we fear also the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, are well aware. The only explanation they offer of "Dave's" presence in this city is that he is a free man, and can go where he pleases, which is exactly the plea offered by burglars in defence of loitering about premises in a suspicious manner. Honest men give a clearer account of their movements when their intentions are called in question.

If the tide of corruption which the tariff has set going, and which is now sweeping away the political virtue of the voters even in the remotest country districts, continues to grow in volume, we must not throw the whole blame on the manufacturers and others who make money out of the tariff. In resisting any change in it they are, in their eyes, defending their property, and in defending property the best men are apt to become unscrupulous. Property, although the source of many virtues, is also at times a serious obscurer of the moral vision. To the manufacturer, the free-trader or tariff-reformer often has the cut of a burglar or footpad, and he uses against him without hesitation any weapon that comes to hand, including wholesale bribery. The Norwich manufacturer who said he would "beat Wells if he had to mortgage his mill," simply meant that he would not let his money go without a fight. The real culprits at this great crisis are the men who sell the offices and the legislation of the nation to these men to enable them to levy toll on the community, and those who vote for President Harrison at this election will not only stamp this system with their approval, but reward its very worst offenders.

A "STABLE" PROTECTIVE TARIFF IMPOSSIBLE.

THE resolutions adopted at the Republican mass-meeting in this city on Wednesday week are in line with the main argument of the party in this campaign in reiterating the cry of the lotus-eaters, "Let us alone." They recite that "the business of the country has adjusted itself" to the McKinley tariff, and that now "no patriotic American who is not blinded by partisan prejudice

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can wish to imperil" the general prosperity by voting for any further tariff changes. The implication is, that the Republican party is perfectly satisfied with the McKinley Bill, and will insist upon continuing it unchanged for many years. But all this is in the face of the tariff history of the past thirty years, is in conflict with the actual facts of the situation, and is contradicted by the unavoidable nature and effects of any protective tariff.

So far from having a record for having "let the tariff alone," the Republican party is the one that has caused all the disturbing and violent shocks to business wrought by successive tariff changes from the Morrill tariff down. It has done this under the constant pressure of the beneficiaries of the tariff within its own ranks. From the nature of the case it is bound to satisfy these beneficiaries, and from *their* nature it is not able to do so. They demand the impossible. They would have law permanently alter the general conditions of business. No law can do this. After a temporary upheaval, things fall back into the old courses again, and then the horse-leech demand for new laws to set nature at defiance recurs. The Corning Iron Works at Albany, in which $1,000,000 had been invested all told, were lately sold for $35,000. Protection had striven for years to get interest on $1,000,000 out of property worth only $35,000. Nature was too much for it. Pittsburgh and Birmingham made a mockery of the laws designed to give money to Albany. But is it possible to conceive of the Albany iron-masters as ever willing to "let the tariff alone" as long as it did not make good to them their natural disadvantage in the production of iron?

Moreover, it is perfectly evident that there is a growing demand already forcing itself upon the Republicans for a serious revision of the McKinley Bill, and that it is a demand with which they will be bound to comply if successful in the election. The Ohio Wool-Growers' Association is one of the most powerful instruments known in this country for the making and unmaking of tariffs, and it is now in the field demanding increased protection, and threatening to vote against any Congressman who will not pledge himself in its favor. McKinley himself is on record with the opinion that the duty on binding-twine is inadequate, and is openly pledged to the Cordage Trust to increase that duty whenever he finds himself able to do so. The recent decision of the courts putting all kinds of goat's hair on the dutiable list involves an immense derangement of important manufacturing interests, and they are already giving notice that Congress must come to their rescue with a revision of the tariff. In the face of these facts it is the sheerest pretence for the Republican party to pose as the champion of "stability" in tariff laws. Nothing is more certain than that their now much dreaded "disturbance of the tariff" will be one of the first things they will set their hands to if they control the next Congress.

In addition to all this, the infernal activity and ingenuity of the foreigner are already finding innumerable joints in the McKinley armor. The past few weeks have witnessed enormous and unprecedented importations of manufactured goods from Europe. The Chemnitz and Bradford mills are reported to be very busily at work on large American orders. This is due in part to the exhaustion at last of the large stocks of goods imported in the early part of 1890 in anticipation of McKinley's masterpiece, and the consequent brisker demand. But it is also partly due to the fact that the foreign manufacturers, having had two years to think the thing over, have devised a great many ways of getting around the tariff. Elaborate as are the tariff classifications, they could not forestall all the new combinations of material and finish and markings that were possible, and the result is that by slight changes in these particulars the malignant foreigner is again able to afflict our unhappy land with a great abundance, at low prices, of the things we want. Surely this cannot be allowed to go on. Unless the Republican party is to prove false to itself, it is bound to correct this monstrous evil. It would doubtless like to be "stable," but it must be consistent and keep on in the holy work of spreading hunger and want in European factory towns.

The truth is, that it is not within the wit of man to make a "stable" protective tariff. Senator Aldrich, in the current *Forum*, defends the McKinley Bill by asserting that it was made necessary by the great changes in methods of manufacturing and in cost of production which had taken place since the last tariff. But are these changes to come to an end in the present year of grace? Are new machines and improved processes no more to be invented? On Mr. Aldrich's own theory, a fresh revision of the tariff will be imperative within the next Presidential term. Protection has to run a race with the progress of invention and the mechanic arts, and it can never hope to keep up. A new application of force, a revolutionizing discovery in a chemical laboratory, undoes at a stroke the work of the wisest and most far-sighted protective legislation, and Sisyphus has to start rolling his stone up the hill again.

To make a protective tariff that might really hope to be stable, what would be needed, in the first place, would be a McKinley endowed with omniscience and the spirit of prophecy, able to grasp all the details of all industries and to forecast the whole future of civilization, and so to make sure provision that his fellow-countrymen should never be contaminated by the sight of anything foreign. Then the nature of the foreign manufacturer would have to be radically changed. His diabolical desire to furnish the world with cheap goods, which he now shows no intention whatever of abandoning, would have to give way to the habit of marking up his products to the top notch and being perfectly content to make and sell nothing. Finally, the nature of Americans would have to be as radically changed. They would have to be made to like being swindled, to crave paying the highest prices possible for everything, and to enjoy being taxed for the benefit of a small class. With these few simple conditions met, a stable protective tariff would be possible; without them it is the dream of a fevered brain, and in indulging in it the Republican leaders are deceiving both themselves and the people.

CONGRESSMAN HARTER ON STATE BANKS.

It was probably as much at Congressman Harter's suggestion as any one's that the proposal to repeal the tax on State banks was put into the Democratic platform. This lends especial importance to his exposition of what it is intended to accomplish. Such an exposition he gave in a paper read before the American Bankers' Association at San Francisco on September 8, and it will have to be reckoned with by all those who wish to discuss the question honestly. Mr. Harter is the last man in the world to be accused of desiring an unsafe currency. To him more than to any other man, except Mr. Cleveland, is due the defeat of the Free-Coinage Bill in the House last March, and his record has been one of intelligent and undeviating opposition to all kinds of fiat money and unsound financial measures. That any plan he favors must at least be intended to secure a perfectly safe and uniform currency, will be admitted by all but blind partisans; that it would actually secure it, must be considered as highly probable by any one who studies his propositions in detail.

The starting-point of the whole discussion is the necessity of doing something. The volume of our national bank-notes is steadily diminishing and is destined to complete extinction. Some form of safe paper currency must be devised to take their place. This is admitted by Senator Sherman. In his speech in Mr. Harter's district last Friday, he took it for granted that "the national banks will have to retire their circulation when the bonds of the United States are paid off," and also that the people of the country "are not willing to delay the payment of the public debt merely to enable the banks to issue circulating notes." But he went on, in perfect keeping with his reputation as the public man whose financial knowledge is the best, but whose practice is the worst, to advocate nothing more nor less than a return to fiat money and unlimited greenbacks. The very financial madness that he fought from 1873 to 1879, when the Democrats were taking it up, he now takes up himself when the Democrats are fighting it. What else is meant by his advocacy of "money

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issued directly by the United States, promising to pay coin, and resting upon the honor, wealth, and resources of 65,000,000 people"? If such a plan would not be an invitation to the most reckless inflation and unsettling of values, then all that experience has taught us, all that Senator Sherman has taught us, is given the lie to.

Contrast this return to discarded financial folly with the conservative plan detailed by Mr. Harter. He begins with a method for securing an indefinite extension of a national-bank currency. This is a vital part of the whole plan, since the continuance of national bank-notes side by side with the issues of State banks would, as he shows, automatically regulate and insure the exchangeability of the latter with gold. This extension of a national paper currency Mr. Harter would effect by allowing other than national bonds to be deposited with the Comptroller of the Currency to secure the circulation. How carefully he would guard the character and value of such bonds may be seen from the following terms of the bill he has drawn:

"(1.) The principal and interest of all such bonds shall, in expressed terms, be payable in gold coin of the United States.

"(2.) All such bonds must have been continuously listed upon some regular stock exchange, located in a city in the United States having a population of not less than 500,000, for at least five years.

"(3.) No bond shall be accepted upon which payment of interest has at any time been in default, or which at any time within three years prior to the date of its offer for acceptance has sold publicly upon any stock exchange where it was listed for less than 105 cents on the dollar of its face value.

"(4.) No bond shall be accepted if the total tax levy of the city issuing it exceeds two per centum per annum.

"(5.) No railroad bond, not regularly secured by mortgage upon the road-bed and track, shall be accepted.

"(6.) No association shall be permitted to have more than twenty per centum of its bonds on deposit of the issue of any one railroad corporation or city.

"(7.) Whenever any class of bonds on deposit has been publicly sold below par for a period of thirty days upon any stock exchange where listed, the Comptroller shall require a bond to be substituted which will in all respects meet the requirements of this act.

"(8.) Whenever any railroad corporation which was paying dividends upon its stock when its bonds were accepted by the Comptroller ceases to pay dividends, the substitution of other and proper bonds shall be required."

With such provision for the continuance of national bank-notes, and with our present gold and silver currency, Congressman Harter argues that the repeal of the 10 per cent. tax on State bank-notes and the issuing of such notes will be attended with perfect safety. The reason is that they can never secure or retain circulation if they are so much as open to the suspicion of inferior quality or deficient value. He shows this with absolute clearness. These State notes are not, and cannot be made, legal tender. To get into circulation beside notes that are legal tender and equal in value to gold, they must be fully as good. If they were not immediately and continuously exchangeable on demand with national bank-notes or gold, nobody would touch one of them. Their security under the State laws that might be enacted to permit their issue would have to be as good as that of national notes, or they could never get out of the bank vaults. As Mr. Harter says, this proposition "is self-evident to any mind familiar with the theory and practice of banking"; and he backs up his opinion by saying that not only has it now the unhesitating support of all those bankers who have really studied the matter, but it also meets the unqualified approval of the *Financial Chronicle* and of the New York *Journal of Commerce*. These cautious and conservative authorities are, according to the distressed Republicans, favoring a "wild-cat" and "red-dog" currency!

Mr. Harter takes up and answers the various objections to his plan, as they have been made in the public prints and in his correspondence with bankers and financiers. The "stump-tail" currency objection he meets as shown above. A State bank-note "would have to be as good and subject to as prompt and perfect redemption as a national bank-note to circulate at all." It is also objected that notes not current in one State would find their way to another. "Practically this would never happen, for a note to have any local circulation whatever would have to be promptly redeemable at home," and, without a local circulation, could never get a distant one. The danger of counterfeiting is also brought forward as an objection. But this is no greater than exists now with national notes, and could be met, as in their case, by using the best quality of engraving. Finally, it is alleged that the circulation would be exposed to "the vagaries of State legislation controlled by over forty different sets of lawmakers, many of them ignorant and goaded to reckless and loose legislation by an impatient local demand for more money." But the correction of such evils would be automatic. What Mr. Harter has to say on this point is of great force:

"You must remember constantly that none of these notes would be a legal tender in any State, and their sole chance for securing credit and circulation would be through actual merit. Let us suppose a case. Say that Mississippi should pass a law authorizing banks to issue money inadequately secured. It could not even get a circulation in the town in which it was issued, for it would be constantly returned to the bank for redemption. It follows surely that it would not circulate or be accepted anywhere else. Such a law, when passed in these days of the telegraph, of daily and weekly papers, and of general and widely diffused financial information and intelligence, would be condemned and every note issued under it would be refused. It is true that a generation ago, when we had little gold and less silver, no government legal-tender notes and no national bank-notes; when railroads were very few and extremely far between; when express offices were almost unknown, telegraph facilities practically unused, country roads far worse even than now, it was possible to secure an uncertain and limited circulation for inferior paper money issued by local banks; but such a thing would be utterly impossible now, as it would cost the banks to keep such money out at least one hundred dollars where it would make them one dollar of profit. It is no more to be dreaded than the return to the flint, the seamstress's needle, the grain-cradle, the canal-boat, the stage coach, or the wagon-freighters of the past."

TWO ENGLISH MYSTERIES.

THE political situation in England is to-day probably the most puzzling in the history of the country, and one in which hardly any one's prognostications are of much value. Whoever attempts to analyze it with a view to prophecy soon finds that all the clues or solvents on which he has hitherto relied utterly fail him. For example, Gladstone is the central figure on the stage, and the anxious observer finds that he is detested by the middle and upper classes with an extraordinary approach to unanimity. In polite society in England to-day, courtesy almost requires the assumption, if you are unknown, that you are anti-Gladstonian. In fact, it has become the fashion, in the strict sense of the term, to denounce Gladstone; and fashion now governs, or at all events influences, a far larger circle of the well-to-do people than it used to do. People denounce Gladstone, just as they put on mourning when the court does, to show that they move in good society and share its joys and sorrows.

The state of things in this respect strongly resembles that which prevailed in English society during the earlier years of our civil war. It was "the thing" in 1861–1864 to sympathize with the South, and believe all the stories of Lincoln's coarseness and Northern brutality; and Americans who were met in good houses were presumed, as a bit of common politeness, to be Southerners. The Northern armies were the objects of nearly as much social horror as the Irish Home-Rulers. The *Times* in 1863 had an article wondering how gentlemen like the Orleans princes could remain in contact with such boors as Northern officers. In matters of this sort the English struggle to rise in the social scale has immense influence in determining the opinions of those who begin to see, either for themselves or their children, the possibility of "arriving," as the French say.

It seems at first sight as if this fashionable hatred of Gladstone would furnish the philosophical observer with the key to the situation of which he was in search. "If I can get these people," he will say to himself, "to tell me why they hate Gladstone, it will make everything plain; I shall know what is coming." But he speedily finds that he is now no better off than ever. When one asks an anti-Gladstonian for specifications, they are rarely to be had, or, if produced, are not explanatory. If one fastens on the theory that Gladstone is odious because he is the leader of the democratic movement, one is soon thrown out by finding that the two most democratic measures of the last half century, the measures most likely to work in the near future a total change in the governing class in England—the extension of the suffrage and the establishment of the County Councils—were passed by the Tories. If he concludes that it is because of Gladstone's interference with the obligation of contracts in Ireland,

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he finds that the most serious and flagrant case of such interference was allowing leaseholders to come in and have their rents also judicially fixed—something on which Mr. Gladstone had not ventured; his legislation was confined to tenants at will. If he concludes that it is because Gladstone is trying to give Ireland home rule, he is foiled by finding that the fashion of detesting him came in before 1885. The commonest excuse for it is that he has frequently in his speeches changed his ground on a variety of public questions; but all English statesmen who have been long in public life have done the same thing. There has been no such *volte-face* in Gladstone's career as Peel's on the Corn Laws in 1847.

The most plausible explanation is, that Gladstone is not so much the author of disagreeable things as that he is associated in the upper and middle-class mind with a very slow but very palpable change in the relation of classes in England, because he preaches about it and openly approves of it, whereas the Tories denounce it and ridicule it while steadily promoting it. That change consists mainly in the self-assertion of the working classes, and it embitters the middle class, who come into immediate contact with it, more than it does the aristocracy. For the middle class, who were the bone and sinew of the first uprising against Tory government in 1882, got all they wanted in the Reform Bill and the subsequent reforms in taxation and administration. Since the triumph of free trade and the emancipation of the boroughs, they have been becoming more and more conservative, and Gladstone is now the old reprobate who will not let things alone.

The second inscrutable, or nearly inscrutable, mystery of British politics is the Irish question. No one can assist at a debate in the House of Commons without being extremely puzzled by the frantic desire of the English people to keep the Irish representatives there. What purpose is served by their presence nobody, from simply listening to the discussion about Ireland, could possibly make out. Not only are they not allowed to frame Irish legislation, but their advice about it is not taken, and one of the most serious charges brought against Mr. Gladstone is that he consults them on Irish matters. In addition to this, hardly any one speaks on the Conservative side on any polemical subject without insulting them. The extent to which this is done, unconsciously in most instances, is a very curious feature of the debates, and so is the patient way in which the Irish submit to it. Every or nearly every Tory speaker either sneers at their poverty as revealed by their receiving pay from their constituents, or at their bad manners as exhibited in the House, and treats their love of crime and association with criminals as facts of common knowledge. This has lasted so long now that few Englishmen notice it, unless their attention is called to it. Yet the character of the Irish members is said, by those who know them, to be very good, and their ability in debate and in committee-work much above the average of the rest of the House; but this makes no difference.

Their principal business is, however, impeding legislation not bearing on the question of home rule, and, in spite of the closure, their success in this is very great, and must be great, unless they are made the object of special restrictions, which is, of course, impossible. As matters stand, they give an air of farce to representative government, and yet any proposal to take them away from Westminster fills most Englishmen with horror. The excitement into which an Englishman is thrown by the suggestion that there should be no Irish members in Parliament would at first suggest to a foreigner that he was passionately attached to them, and considered their presence a condition of national safety; but this is speedily dissipated, for in the next breath he describes them as the scum of creation, and assures you that if they had a Parliament of their own, their favorite occupations would be robbery and murder.

The dislike of Ireland as a country is manifested in the same anomalous way. All allusions to it are of the most melancholy and contemptuous character, but any proposal to let it go lets loose a flood of patriotic feeling, as if English associations with it were of the tenderest and most endearing kind. As a matter of fact it is held by 40,000 men as against a foreign enemy, just as it would be in time of war, and is avoided by the English court as if it were a pest-house, and it is impossible to get from Englishmen any description of its value to the Empire. The usual last resource is to describe it as a place in which in time of war a foreign enemy could get a footing if the natives owned it; but how the foreign enemy would get there unless England lost the command of the sea, and why the enemy in that case would stay in Ireland instead of coming to England, where he would enjoy himself far more, is never explained.

INNOVATIONS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

In a recent examination of the circulars of the new University of Chicago, we called attention to some interesting departures from the traditions of the American college. In some of its innovations, it is true, Chicago has taken hints from recent educational experiments at other colleges, but even in these cases it has modified what it has borrowed, so that the general effect of its programme is decidedly original.

A good example of this modified imitation is found in the organization of the Chicago faculties. During the last few years Columbia has given an independent organization to the faculties charged with senior and graduate work, separating them from the old college faculty. At Chicago we find that separate faculties have been formed for "academic" and "university" instruction. At both institutions the distinction corresponds approximately to that drawn in Germany between gymnasium and university, and the faculty or faculties charged with the more advanced instruction represent roughly the German faculty of philosophy. But there is more than one interesting difference between the Columbia and the Chicago plan. At Columbia the line is drawn between the junior and senior years; at Chicago between the sophomore and junior years. At Chicago the duties of the German faculty of philosophy are discharged by a single "faculty of arts, literature, and science"; at Columbia this work is divided between three faculties—a faculty of political science, a faculty of "pure" natural science, and a narrower faculty of philosophy. A similar differentiation of the older faculty of philosophy is beginning to appear in Germany. At Columbia, finally, the senior may study not only under any of the three faculties just mentioned, but also under the faculties of law, medicine, and applied science; *i.e.*, he may begin his professional work before completing his college course, and this work is counted as a part of the requirements for the baccalaureate degree. At Chicago none of these professional schools is yet established, but there is a divinity school, and it does not appear from the Calendar that juniors or seniors are to be permitted to take courses in that school. At the same time, the courses offered by the Faculty of Arts, Literature, and Science include much that is ordinarily taught in our theological seminaries, and it seems probable that the college student who takes courses in comparative religion, church history, the Semitic languages and literature, and New Testament Greek, will require less time subsequently to complete his divinity course.

Among the professional schools which Chicago hopes to establish, we find not only schools of law, medicine, fine arts, and engineering, but also a "school of pedagogy." There are precedents for the institution of such a school, but we are nevertheless of the opinion that it is unnecessary. In no scheme for training teachers is the intending pedagogue taught simply how to teach; he is taught things to teach as well. But the things he is to teach are best taught him in the regular university courses. Give such a student free access to the courses in philosophy, philology, literature, history, political science, mathematics, and natural science, and all that he can ask from the university in addition is instruction in the history and theory of teaching. For this purpose proper courses in pedagogics are sufficient; a special professional school is not required.

As regards professional degrees we can only applaud the intention of the University to abolish all honorary degrees, and to provide, ultimately, for the attainment of the degrees of D.D. and LL.D. in course. This is a logical result of the transformation of the Ph.D. from an honorary to a regular degree—a transformation accomplished within the last twenty years by the Eastern universities. It is justified by educational precedent and the practice of foreign universities. Chicago is right, again, in declaring that every candidate for the doctor's degree in law or divinity shall be held to pursue a part of his studies under the direction of the Faculty of Arts and Letters. Our professional schools are so purely professional—in fact, so technical—that the highest university degrees should not be awarded to their graduates unless these have broadened and humanized their education with more liberal studies.

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Turning our attention again to the "academic" and "university colleges," *i. e.*, to the college and graduate school, we are at first glance startled by the number and range of the courses offered. It may be said, however, without intending to undervalue the really rich curriculum, that the goods are cleverly displayed. The division of the year into terms of only six weeks each greatly multiplies the number of courses. Further, a very large number are only projected, no instructors having as yet been secured to conduct them. This policy of first announcing courses and then looking for persons qualified to give them may be proper in the earlier and disciplinary years of the college curriculum, but we think it wrong in principle in the "university" years. There is no way to build up a true university except to form the faculties of original investigators in every field of knowledge, and leave each professor free to teach what he knows best in the way that is most natural to him. That is what "academic freedom" means as regards the teacher.

There are lacunæ, and some serious ones, in the list of courses offered; but the University does itself injustice in declaring that the work of the "Department of Political Science" will not begin this year. In connection with this announcement, reference is made to a dozen courses in historical and comparative politics and constitutional and international law (all of which are grouped under history), but no reference is made to the numerous courses in political economy and social science. On careful examination of the entire list of lectures, we find no important branch of political science neglected except administrative law. The question suggests itself, whether at Chicago administration is regarded as the only political science, or whether the University has discovered or is searching for a new political science.

We are very sorry to see figuring in the announcements the delusive proffer of a course in journalism. We do not say that a course in English may not be so shaped as to be of especial value to an embryo journalist; but the announcement of such a course leads some students to expect more than can be given them in the lecture-room. The proffer in question is particularly objectionable because, in the space of six weeks, the class is not only to study and practise "the art of journalism," but also "periodical literature, literary editorship, and book-making."

The most peculiar feature of the Chicago plan is that the University is to be kept running all the year through, including the summer months. The calendar year is divided into four quarters of twelve weeks each, beginning respectively on the first days of October, January, April, and July; and at the end of each quarter there is to be a recess of one week. Each quarter consists of two terms of six weeks. No student is to be held to an attendance of more than three quarters, or six terms, in each year, so that the normal academic year is no longer than at other colleges. Each student is to begin his academic year whenever he is ready, and to take his quarter's vacation whenever it suits his convenience. He may even take his two terms of vacation in different quarters.

The opportunity of entering the University at the beginning of any quarter will obviously be of advantage to many students. Secondary instruction is very imperfectly organized in our country, and our fitting-schools send their students to college with very diverse equipments. Under the customary American plan, a student who is imperfectly prepared for the freshman class is either admitted with conditions or compelled to wait a full year. In the former case he has to make up his deficiencies while pursuing the regular course—which means that he has too much to do. But if, as often happens, his deficiencies can be made good in four or five months, and he is obliged to delay his entrance for a full year, he has too little to do. Not only is his time wasted, but the habit of serious work may be impaired. Under the Chicago plan, both evils are avoided.

Under the ordinary American system, again, a student who is overfitted for the freshman class and inadequately prepared for the sophomore class, is confronted with a similar alternative. He either enters as a sophomore with conditions, and has to do too much, or he enters the freshman class and does too little. Under the Chicago plan each student who enters the college receives credit for what he has done before entrance, and is held to do only what he has not done. As there is no regular time for graduation, any more than for entrance, the student who has anticipated any considerable portion of the college curriculum will complete it so much sooner. If, for example, he has anticipated one quarter's work, he will complete his baccalaureate course in eleven quarters instead of twelve. This seems fairer than the Harvard plan, by which such a student is indeed admitted to advanced standing and given advanced studies, but, unless he has anticipated a full year's work, is held subsequently for the same length of time as the students who have barely satisfied the entrance requirements.

All these advantages, however, might be substantially attained without a summer quarter. This innovation, as far as we can see, will be serviceable to but two classes of students, viz., the very poor and the very ambitious. Those students who have to "work their way" through college, and who can best earn the funds they need by teaching country schools in winter, will be able, under the Chicago arrangement of terms, to teach through the winter and study through the summer. In the older colleges provision has always been made for this most deserving class, either by a winter vacation of some six weeks or by leave to study *in absentia*. The former solution, of which the Chicago plan is only a further development, has gradually been discarded in our Eastern colleges. The winter vacation has grown steadily shorter and the summer vacation longer. The latter solution seems to be possible under the Chicago rules; for in the "General Regulations," section 10, provision is made for non-resident study. The summer quarter, therefore, does not seem necessary to meet the wants of this class of students.

The only others who will be likely to use the privilege of summer attendance are those who desire to shorten their college course by crowding twelve quarters of study into three years. That the University intends to make this possible is shown in the section on admission to advanced standing, where it is pointed out that the student who has anticipated one-fourth of the required course may obtain his degree in two years and three months, by working four quarters in the year. In the "General Regulations," section 17, it is declared that "a student will not be permitted to study in the University four consecutive quarters without a physician's certificate that he may do the work of the fourth quarter without injury to his health."

We think it a grave question whether the policy here indicated is a wise one. We do not think that students ought to be encouraged to crowd a four years' course into three years. We do not think that many young men will be able to do this without injury; and Chicago, which is a coeducational institution, encourages young women to do it. The requirement of a medical certificate is a confession, on the part of the University authorities, that such an attempt is fraught with danger. But the safeguard of a "physician's" (*i.e.*, any physician's) certificate is quite inadequate. In the same section (17) we find mention of a "University physician" and of a "director of the department of physical education," and we were a little puzzled, at first, to understand why the approval of one or both of these authorities should not be required. But upon further examination of the Calendar, we discover that there is no University physician, and that the director of physical education is a Yale athlete, who holds no medical degree. There is, however, a female tutor in this department, who is M.D. of the University of Buffalo. Considering that the danger of overwork is greatest in the case of the female students, who are notoriously more ambitious than the young men and less able to stand the strain of a college course, it seems only right that Dr. Alice Bertha Foster should be consulted. Some competent medical authority should certainly be designated for whose decision in so grave a matter the University could be held responsible. The present arrangement is better adapted to shield the University than to protect the students.

The proposed summer quarter has another side. If there are students, there must be teachers; and it appears from the Calendar that a considerable number of instructors will be held in Chicago through the hottest months of the year. It is apparently to be a serious thing, this summer quarter: "the courses of instruction," the Calendar says, "will in general be so arranged that a student may enter a college or school at the beginning of any quarter." The University is not to play at summer schooling; it is to be run under full pressure. What that pressure is, we have pointed out in our preceding notice. The most important courses of the "academic colleges" are crowded into single terms of six weeks, by devoting ten hours a week to a single subject. Throughout the University, courses of less than five hours are exceptional. It is a system of "cram quizzes," and every college man will appreciate the strain upon students and instructors. These long courses in short terms, the attempt to keep the University under full steam through the moist heat of a Chicago summer, the encouragement given to the student to compress four years' work into three years—the whole scheme breathes that nervous, restless haste which is one of the most deplorable features of American life; and when our universities come to forget that "school" means leisure, and that high-thinking cannot be hurried, one of the last safeguards against the national vice of over-pressure will be lost.

RESTORATIONS IN VENICE.

VENICE, September 1, 1892.

FROM time to time the restorations going on (or neglected) at Venice have called out from various foreign sources remonstrances sometimes just and needed, and at times exaggerated and requiring a defence or explanation. But the critics, unaware of the antagonisms developed among those responsible for the care and restoration of the monuments and

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the internal difficulties which the restorers have had to contend with beyond the technical ones, have never done entire justice to them. There have always been two schools of restorers in Venice—one for preservation and the other for renovation; and the rancor of their antagonism has been carried to a point only short of physical collision. The renovators, whose ideal of restoration was the removal of all marks of time, had always with them, as in every Italian city, the municipal authorities, and, since the organization of the Provincial Council for the preservation of ancient monuments, have formed the majority of that body. The arbiter of all disputes is the Ministry of Public Instruction, which presides over the interests of archæology and art, as well as literature. In the beginning the renovators had it all their own way, at Florence as well as at Venice; and the great outbreak of indignation in England about fifteen years ago had a large basis of justification and did an immense deal of good, but would have done more had the denunciations taken account of the fight that some of the Italians were making against the crudities then perpetrated.

The restoration of the Fondaco dei Turchi, the noblest of all the early palaces of Venice, had been effected by the municipality through its architect, Berchet, and resulted in simple reconstruction, with the difference between the original and the restored buildings that all the splendid columns of the original, brought from the East and (after the manner of the Venice of that time) simply introduced in their original condition and patina, and the bits of early sculpture worked in as decoration, either borrowed from earlier buildings or made *ad hoc*, were entirely recut, and the former reduced to the uniform standard and symmetry of modern design and construction—the latter so as to remove every trace of the original art. This made the Fondaco no longer an ancient building, but a modern and grossly inaccurate copy of the old, with not a single element of antiquity remaining; but it was to the intense satisfaction of the municipality, which conferred a pension on the architect in token of its content. To all people of taste the palace is utterly ruined. The Church of St. Mark had its own architect, who had been in charge during the greater part of the Austrian dominion, Cav. Meduna, a man who died past ninety years of age, and was succeeded by his younger brother. Both had been trained under the Austrian authority, which, whatever it may have deserved of detestation politically, showed a reverence and tenderness for the antiquities of Venice that its Italian local authorities have never had. They carried out the restorations on the church, if not with the feeling for the picturesque which the English critics demanded, at least with the respect for everything old that the stability of the building permitted, and the north façade remains as evidence of Austrian good taste. The younger Meduna retained his position after Venice became Italian, and at the time of the English protests I was in Venice and wrote in his defence, in the main, drawing on myself a great deal of English indignation. I am free, therefore, to say that the architectural authority now responsible for the condition of the church has much less than the Medunas' reverence for it, and his new restorations of the pavement, painfully in discord with the original work, and his introduction of the electric light for the illumination of the interior (!), show what we must expect from his superintendence of the church in the future.

Fortunately, at the same time that the great controversy broke out, the restorations of the Duomo at Florence were going on, on the system of Berchet, by washing the marble incrustation of the church with acids to remove the patina and then recutting the sculptured surfaces. This was the municipal ideal, at Florence as at Venice; but there the English outcry was in time to attract the attention of the Ministry of Public Instruction, which immediately ordered the suspension of the renovation, and the whole subject came up for examination, with the result that all similar attempts throughout the kingdom were forbidden. In Venice, however, the war of the sects went on, and the apple of discord was the Ducal Palace. The direction here belonged entirely to the Ministry, and there was no chance for the municipality to renovate after the manner of the Fondaco; but there was a strong competition between the two schools for the execution of the work. Happily the plans of the chief of the school of preservation, the architect Forcellini, involved an expense so slight in comparison with that of the rival project of substantial reconstruction, that it was awarded the preference; for the external indications of decay were so marked that it seemed to superficial observers that the building must come down. The practical execution of the plans of Forcellini was placed in the hands of a capomaestro of the Ministry of Public Works, a worthy descendant of the builders of Orvieto, Siena, Pisa, etc. (for the profession of architect as distinguished from the builder did not then exist, and Niccolo Pisano, Arnolfo, and their colleagues were simply the head-foremen of the masons and builders). Forcellini died some years ago, without seeing the realization of his plans, and the control of the works devolved on the capomaestro, Vendrasco, who had to meet a redoubled energy of attack from the united forces of the Chapter of St. Mark's, the Provincial Council, and the body of architects, who reclaimed for an architect the control of the work. The Provincial Council is clerical, as is naturally the Chapter and its architect, and the advent of the Ministry of Rudini, strongly clerical, or of the old Right, strengthened the hands of the clerical element in the Council. Berchet, the renovator of the Fondaco dei Turchi, was made President of it, his acceptation being conditional on the dismissal of Vendrasco, which, after a protracted contest between the opposing influences, was finally decided upon.

Nothing can give a better idea of the character of certain tendencies of official Italy than the career of this Provincial Council. Its existence, like that of all its kind, is due to the passion for official position; for the efficiency and competence of its members have generally nothing to do with their appointment, which becomes a question of partisan or personal influence. The fitness of its constituents for their position may be judged from the selection of the restorer of the Fondaco for its president. The manner in which it performs its duty of supervision of the preservation of monuments may be inferred from the following facts lately observed, and which have been in my knowledge for several years. Peremptory orders have issued from the Ministry for the removing of all combustible matter, and everything foreign to the building itself, from the Ducal Palace, but the Institute of Venice still occupies, with its mass of books, documents, and papers of all kinds, the principal rooms along the Piazzetta side; and while the Council replies to all remonstrances that it cannot find a fitting place for the library, it has let as a café the Zecca, which was, in every sense of the term, admirably adapted for the purpose, but as such offered no speculation. *En passant*, I may add that it was due to the persistent denunciation of English and American residents that the families living in the palace, and the carpenter's shop in one of its principal rooms, were removed. The rooms underneath the galleries containing the great collection of Venetian art at the Accademia, are occupied as a winter school of design, with heating arrangement of a primitive kind, for the comfort of the models and pupils, with lights, etc., etc., as requisite. They are, besides, stored with pictures for which no place on the walls can be made, canvases not worth hanging, etc.; and a chance spark or a defective flue may destroy the entire collection in an hour. The great Titian in S. Salvatore, with its proud inscription, "Titianus fecit," is spattered all over its lower part with the wax of the altar candles; the superb Bellini at Murano was, when I saw it, as it has been for years, exposed to the full blaze of the sun at certain hours of the day, and two of the finest Tintorets still in the churches I found in the same state. The finest Lorenzo Lotto in Venice, and perhaps the best there is, is in a dark chapel in S. Bartolomeo, where it cannot be seen under any circumstances, and where the only compensation for its neglected state is that the cleaners who have ruined some of the best pictures in the Accademia cannot get at it. The roof of S. Pietro di Castello, the original cathedral church of Venice, is a complete wreck and does not keep out the weather. The late Ministry issued an order of the most imperative character, that no pictures in the churches were to be kept under curtains in order that the custodians might make the exhibition of them a pretext for asking fees, and that no custodian should be allowed to accept fees; but the Council has taken no step to procure obedience to the order in a single case.

The letting of the Zecca for a café is a most luminous illustration of the efficiency of the Council. Three arches of the façade which were built up by the Republic, under circumstances of historical interest, and have remained closed ever since, were an obstacle to its utilization as café, and the reopening of them was opposed by all the lovers of old Venice as an offence against history, apart from the degradation of the building for the proposed use. The fight was hot over it, the municipal authorities regarding the rent to be received as the principal consideration, while Vendrasco, our capomaestro, took part in the discussion, and published a pamphlet opposing the decision of the Council which approved the letting. This settled the question of his dismissal from the works on the palace, which, though demanded by the Council, and thereupon taken into favorable consideration by the Ministry, had never been carried into effect, on account of the numerous remonstrances the measure had called out. The insubordination shown by the employee of the Government in publicly protesting against the decision of the superior authority provoked the order for his dismissal, and he was formally dismissed; but the immediate pressure from influential quarters on the new Ministry, with the influence of the new Prefect, Basile, an intelligent lover of old Venice—perhaps, also, a review of all the facts by the new Minister Martini—reversed the decision, and the old man was reinstated in his former position.

Italians are very sensitive to foreign criticisms of their way of treating their artistic treasures, and at times very voluble in their

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abuse of a critic who ventures to say that they do not appreciate them; but the conduct of the Provincial Council for the Venetian provinces, the most important in Italy, is an undeniable proof of the insufficiency of the machinery of the Government and the utter incompetence of the local authorities to protect them. We have the Fondaco dei Turchi utterly ruined, the Zecca let as a café, the finest collection of Venetian art in the world in danger of conflagration, to say nothing of the destruction by restoration, and by only less destructive neglect, of some of the finest pictures in Venice. All over the kingdom we have ancient churches, most important in the history of art, allowed to be transformed by the Church authorities into the most vulgar modern structures; the Duomo of Florence about to be reduced to the state of a building of the nineteenth century—an end only stopped by a timely article in the *Cornhill Magazine* (which called out the most intense indignation of the Florentines), as the worst of the intended desecrations in Venice were prevented by the outcry of the English correspondents when they had not called out an alarm from any Italian authority. We have an awakening of the royal authorities, due mainly to the foreign protests, and yet the Italian journals will go on abusing the foreigner for his impertinent meddling with Italian archæological questions.

The late Minister of Public Instruction, Prof. Villari, had the highest interest in these questions, and did his best to promote the artistic interests of the country; but his efforts were continually thwarted by the indifference of the public and the Legislature, and the conflict of authorities, local and central, which made an entanglement of red tape such as no one not an experienced bureaucrat and politician, neither of which he was, could struggle against. Italians may like it or not, they may prevent remedies being taken, but they cannot prevent the art-loving traveller from criticising ever so savagely their neglect of works which belong to the history of the world's art as well as to Italy. And I will do the Italian Ministry the justice to say that I have never known a case of its attention being called in the most private manner, even, to an injury being done to any monument, without the notice receiving instant attention. Nothing could be more liberal and cordial than was the action of Prof. Villari in all cases where the interests of art were concerned; but he was not long enough in office to learn to see through all the intrigues which involved even the peaceful department of Public Instruction. I hope it will be found that his successor will have no less liberality in his views.

W. J. S.

MARCEAU.

PARIS, September 16, 1892.

THE extraordinary and well-deserved success of the Memoirs of Gen. Marbot has given a great impetus to the publication of military memoirs. Most of them are hardly readable, as they are purely technical. Attention has been turned to the military characters of the great Revolution. Whatever may be said about this great social event and its consequences, it cannot be denied that the civil representatives of the Revolution are generally very repulsive; it is difficult to feel any enthusiasm for such men as Danton, Robespierre, Saint-Just, Hébert, even for Mirabeau. Republican writers find more sympathetic characters in such men as Kléber, Kellermann, Marceau. M. Noël Parfait, a Republican deputy of Eure-et-Loir, has just published a volume on Marceau. This young general, who died at the age of twenty-seven, is one of the poetical figures of the Revolution. It is now the fashion to place portraits at the beginning of all historical works, and when I saw the fine and youthful head of Marceau, in his hussar uniform, with his slight moustache tracing a thin curve on his upper lip, his shako, with a long plume, slightly inclined on his head, his long, flowing hair, his loose black cravat, leaving full liberty to the movements of the neck, his breast covered with *brandebourgs* (the portrait is by Sergent), I was seduced, and stopped and bought the volume. I do not regret it, for I have taken more pleasure in the book than in Zola's sad 'Débâcle.'

Marceau, if the ancients spoke the truth, was beloved by the gods, as he died very young. He was born at Chartres on the 1st of March, 1769, the first-born of a second marriage of his father, Marceau-Desgraviers, who had a small office in the bailiwick of Chartres. His mother did not nurse him, but put him out in a neighboring village; he was brought up among peasants. Marceau left a short journal of his youth. He exhibited very early a great taste for military life, and, as his parents would not give the money necessary to make him an officer, he enlisted as a private, on the 2d of December, 1784, at the age of fifteen. This engagement was annulled, but as soon as he attained the required age, on the 1st of March, 1785, he entered the regiment of Savoie-Carignan (infantry), commanded by the Comte de Sérent. He went to Metz, where his regiment was in garrison. He regretted at first having left his parents, though he had never received any kindness from their hands; he felt discouraged and disgusted when he perceived that no advancement was possible except for noblemen. The Revolution soon gave him the means of advancement. He was in Paris at the time of the taking of the Bastille, and shared in the storming of the old fortress; his name, on account of his coöperation in the revolutionary movement, was struck off the list of his regiment. He became acquainted with Pétion and Brissot, and was presented by them to Lafayette, who took him as a supernumerary aide-de-camp. He remained five months with Lafayette, and wrote by his orders "Instructions for the National Guard."

Marceau received his appointment as lieutenant in the Thirty-fourth Infantry and at the same moment was elected commander of a battalion of volunteers in his department. He left for Reims with this battalion, and instructed his soldiers for five months. He was next sent to Montmédy, and appointed lieutenant-colonel. The situation of the army of the Ardennes was critical. Lafayette had fled across the frontier and become a prisoner of the Austrians; on the 23d of August, Longwy surrendered, and the Duke of Brunswick marched on Verdun. Marceau had been called in haste to Verdun, which had Beaurepaire for its commander; the unfortunate Beaurepaire shot himself, and Marceau, as the youngest officer of the garrison, was obliged to carry to the King of Prussia the letter which announced the capitulation of the place. After the surrender of Verdun, Marceau, with the men who had not deserted, joined the army and reorganized his battalion. Dillon took him for his aide-de-camp, and Marceau had a brilliant part in the battle of Valmy, which saved France from an invasion.

The moral effect of this victory was immense. Dumouriez, with Kellermann and Dillon, had inflicted a crushing defeat on 86,000 Prussians. After the battle Dillon and Marceau went to Paris. Dillon was hostile to the Government; Marceau left him and entered the cavalry, as captain in the cuirassiers of the Germanic Legion, which was composed chiefly of German deserters. The soldiers wrote petitions to the Chamber against their chiefs, and, for a month, Marceau was imprisoned. He was acquitted and immediately replaced in the army, and sent to La Vendée. He shared with his cuirassiers in the battle of Saumur, and saved the life of Citizen Bourbotte, a "representative of the people" who was with the republican army. The Germanic Legion was disbanded and Marceau was sent to Niort under Biron. He did not remain long with him, as Biron lost his command soon afterwards and was recalled by the Convention. "They recall me," said the General to his aide-de-camp; "it is the beginning. Well! I will go on to the end!" The end was the scaffold.

The French garrison of Mayence, which had made an heroic defence, could not, by the terms of the capitulation, serve any more against the enemy during the rest of the campaign. The Convention sent it to Brittany, and Marceau thus became a companion and friend of Gen. Kléber. The "Mayençais," as they were at first called, fell into the ambuscades of the Vendeans, as they did not understand the new style of warfare initiated by the Bretons. Kléber was not long in repairing their first defeats; he was appointed commander-in-chief of the Army of the West, and Marceau general-of-brigade. It would take too long to give the painful details of the war in La Vendée. Kléber had to fight not only against the Bretons, but against the deputies of the Convention, who were crossing his plans all the time, and against the patriots, like Rossignol, who knew nothing about war and who had nevertheless received commands. He as well as Marceau was constantly denounced to the Convention. After the battle of Le Mans, a young lady fled after the defeat of the Royalists and was fortunate enough to meet Marceau in the midst of his staff. He saved her and sent her to his headquarters. Mlle. des Mesliers accompanied the republican army to Laval, and Marceau left her there in the house of one of her aunts. She was unfortunately discovered by the Revolutionary authorities, and was thrown into prison. She appeared before the Revolutionary Tribunal with seven other Vendean women, and they were all, without distinction of age, executed on the guillotine—"seeing," said the judgment, "that it is proved that the accused were all among the brigands of La Vendée." Marceau had fallen ill and was obliged to leave the army. He spent some time at Chartres, where he became engaged to Mlle. de Châteaugiron (the Châteaugirons momentarily called themselves Leprêtre). One day Mme. Leprêtre de Châteaugiron, the mother, her daughter Agathe, Emisa, the sister of Marceau, and Marceau himself were together, when the executioner of Rennes asked to say a word to the general; he had a little package to give him. Marceau at first refused to see him, but after a moment allowed the executioner to come in, and received from his hands a little box which contained a small gold watch which Angélique des Mesliers had left him. "Poor girl!" said Marceau, in tears; "I had promised her that she should live."

Marceau, after a visit made in Paris to the Committee of Public Safety—a visit which became an ovation as soon as his name was known—rejoined the army of the Ardennes and found himself again with his friend

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Kléber. At Fleurus he commanded the right wing of the army; he took several places in Belgium, participated in many combats, and finally took Coblentz. His chivalrous courage had made him the idol of the army. The whole of the left bank of the Rhine was now in the hands of the French, from Wesel to Bâle. Marceau showed the greatest activity at Coblentz. He was isolated, and had only ten thousand men; he built an entrenched camp for Coblentz, and besieged the citadel of Ehrenbreitstein on the right bank of the Rhine. He was obliged to raise the siege when the French army fell back on the Rhine and crossed the bridge at Neuwied. The army of Sambre-et-Meuse was retreating, and, in this retreat, Marceau had to fight with one division against twenty-six thousand men.

In the operations of the retreat, Marceau was in constant danger. One day, when he was ascending a hill with two soldiers and an officer to examine a position, an Austrian hussar was seen on the road, who tried to draw the attention of the French. A Tyrolean jäger was concealed in a bush on the road from Höchstenbach to Vallerod. These jägers were good shots, and generally fired at the gilt uniforms and epaulets. Marceau was struck by a bullet, and felt at once that he was mortally wounded; he was carried on guns covered with cloaks to the village of Vallerod. The ball had entered the right arm and lodged under the ribs. As Marceau could no longer follow the army, Gen. Jourdan, the commander-in-chief, left him with the Austrians, with two officers, two surgeons, and two soldiers. The Austrians showed much sympathy for Marceau, and treated him with the greatest kindness. He became delirious, spoke constantly of battles, of his mother, of the young woman to whom he was engaged. The Archduke Charles came in person to see him, but found him dead, knelt and prayed before the death-bed, and ordered that the body should be conducted to the French lines with all military honors. The scene of this removal was an imposing one; it has been reproduced several times by French painters. The funeral took place on the 24th of September, and was a sort of apotheosis. The body was carried with great pomp to Petersberg, and the guns of the two armies were fired on both sides of the Rhine in honor of the young hero.

There was a second funeral after the first, by the desire of Kléber. Marceau's remains were cremated and a pyramid of stone was placed over them. On the marble urn which contained the ashes was inscribed this device: "Hic cineres, ubique nomen." Lord Byron, on passing before the tomb, composed verses which will do more for the memory of Marceau than all the biographies.

Correspondence.

CITY GOVERNMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The interesting letter of Mr. Rowe from Berlin tempts me to recur to this fruitful subject. Having read Mr. Shaw's essays and a good deal of similar literature, I am led to the conclusion that we have very little to gain from foreign methods of city government, probably owing to differences of social condition, and that we shall have to work out the problem for ourselves.

I have had from the start an utter disbelief in the London County Council. The attempt to govern a large city by means of a numerous elected body, precisely in principle like our City Councils or Boards of Aldermen, without any executive head or authority of any kind, and working by means of committees, must either end in total failure—of which signs are not wanting—or else, for some reason, the population of London offers very different material to govern from that of New York or Boston. The "Magistrat" of Berlin, reported by Mr. Rowe as a sort of committee evolved from a large council by second election, may work well there, but imagine such a committee elected for six or twelve years by the Board of Aldermen to govern New York! The reign of Tammany would appear a blessing in comparison. We have no "King of Prussia" to keep them in order, and I think there are few Americans, especially among those who have visited Berlin, who would not prefer to bear the ills we have rather than look to any such remedy as that. So of Paris. We have not and cannot have anything like the "Prefect of the Seine."

What is the fundamental principle upon which our city as well as all our governments rest? It is, in theory at least, that they shall be carried on in accordance with the wish of the majority of the people. I say in theory, because we neutralize it from the start by basing elections upon plurality, which of itself is fatal to the hope of good government. We then proceed to diffuse power and responsibility so that the majority of the voters cannot understand how the Government is carried on—who deserves praise and who blame—or how to apply their efforts so as to obtain good results. And so, in spite of the kicking and shaking administered to them with about as much logic as would be implied in beating a steam-engine, they grow more and more indifferent and apathetic, and leave politics to the small minority who do understand the subject and how to apply their efforts so as to produce results beneficial to themselves. The simplification of the machinery is the prime necessity of our politics as much as in any operation of mechanics.

I should like to quote in italics the whole of the last three paragraphs of Mr. Rowe's letter, but can only express my unqualified commendation. They are doubly valuable as coming from one who has the much-vaunted government of Berlin before his eyes. One point, however, it seems worth while to reinforce, and that is where he shows that our city governments are no different in principle from the State and national, the one being no more a business corporation than the others. The same voters, as far as they go, elect a mayor and a city council, a governor and a legislature, a president and congress, and the failure of results and the causes of that failure are throughout the same. The real difference is in the fact that the State and Federal governments are carried on under constitutions supposed to be established by the people, while city government is under a charter granted by the State. The superiority of foreign cities, such as it is and so far as I can make out, depends less upon their local organization than upon the fact that there is more or less a strong Government over them, backed by the habits and traditions of centuries. The lesson we need to learn, therefore, is the necessity of strengthening the State, not by resorting to either monarchy or aristocracy, but by making its Government really responsive to the wishes of the mass of the people instead of abandoning it to the schemes of wire-pulling politicians and the lobby. G. B.

Boston, September 30, 1892.

THE SECRET BALLOT IN MARYLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While reading your recent editorial on "Party Value of a Secret Ballot," I was forcibly reminded of an incident occurring at the polls here during our last Congressional election, when we elected our Democratic candidate in the Sixth District of Maryland, which was then supposed to be the Gibraltar of Republicanism in this State. I had just deposited my secret ballot, and lingered a few moments in conversation with the inspectors of election, when a venerable looking colored man came from the stall adjoining the one I had occupied while marking my ticket; he held his hat in his hand, and, after depositing his ballot, made a most courteous bow to those present, saying: "Good day, gentlemen. I thank God I have lived to see the day that I cast my first respectable vote without interference from any man!"

In connection with the secret ballot in Maryland it seems an interesting coincidence that our successful candidate for Congress, Gen. W. McM. McKaig, was the original introducer of the secret-ballot system in our Legislature. He was then our State Senator. He was also the first beneficiary of this act, as he was elected Mayor of the city of Cumberland at the first election held under the new system in this State. J. P. G.

Cumberland, Md., September 26, 1892.

THE NAMING OF AMERICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is to be regretted that so interesting and timely an article, and one destined to so wide a reading as Mr. Mason's "The Baptismal Font of America," in the October *Harper's*, should be marred by an unhappy misprint or blunder in its most critical passage, the translation of Waldseemüller's suggestion of the name. The original reads:

"Nunc vero et hae partes sunt latius lustratae et alia quarta pars per Americum Vesputium (ut in sequentibus audietur) inventa est quam non video cur quis jure vetet ab Americo inventore sagacis ingenii viro Amerigen, quasi Americi terram, sive Americam dicendam, cum et Europa et Asia a mulieribus sua sortita sint nomina."

The important part of this passage Mr. Mason translates:

"I do not see why we may justly refuse to name it America, namely, the land of Americus or America, after its discoverer Americus, a man of sagacious mind, since both Europe and Asia derived their names from women."

The correct rendering is: "I do not see why any one may justly forbid it to be named Amerige, that is, Americ's Land, from Americus the discoverer, a man of sagacious mind, or America, since both Europe and Asia chanced to receive names of women."

The important point, which does not appear in the first version, is that Waldseemüller suggested *two* names for the New World. The first, Amerige, is made up from the Greek word *ge* and a genitive form of the Latin name Americus with the last part cut off for euphony. This piece of pedantry came naturally enough to the man who, in accordance with the fashion of the time, devised the Græco-Latin compound Hylacomylus as an equivalent of his own name. The thought, however, that Europe and Asia received names from women leads him to make the much happier suggestion of the feminine of Americus.

That Waldseemüller suggested *two* names,

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and that we might possibly be living in *Amerige* to-day had his fellow-geographers all had the same weakness for classical compounds, is not even hinted at in most of the books. As Mr. Mason has given a photographic copy of the original text, it is perhaps superfluous to call attention to two mistakes in transcription, viz., *haec* for *hae*, and *fortita* for *sortita*. EDWARD G. BOURNE.

ADELBERT COLLEGE, CLEVELAND.
September 25, 1892.

THE BOSTON PUBLIC LIBRARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The hopes of one student were mightily raised when Mr. Samuel A. B. Abbott averred that there was "*not a particle* of foundation" for the statement that the Boston Public Library "no longer grants to persons actually engaged in authorship the privilege of drawing books, though non-residents." Certainly I knew there were several particles of foundation, at least, for the statement, but I inferred that the Trustees were not aware of such facts, and were determined they should not exist. I therefore ventured to address the President of the Board, saying this, and asking, for the reason that I am writing a course of lectures for the Lowell Institute, on the History of Science, that I be allowed to borrow Gilbert's treatise, 'De Magnete.' I offered, at the same time, if desired, to deposit $50 as security for the book, which usually fetches about $35 in the market. My letter was returned to me by Mr. Abbott unanswered. I wonder how the kingdoms of this world appear when viewed from that awful pinnacle, the Presidency of the Board of Trustees of the Public Library of the City of Boston. What funny little creatures ordinary men must seem! Such a situation would be quite enough to render many a poor gentleman so dizzy that he would not know whether he was telling the truth or not. C. S. PEIRCE.

Notes.

MR. WHITTIER'S literary executor, Mr. Samuel T. Pickard, who has been charged with the preparation of the poet's Life, desires the loan of any autograph letters that may be serviceable to that end. Mr. Pickard's address is No. 44 Exchange Street, Portland, Me.

Additional announcements by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are, 'An American Missionary in Japan,' by Dr. Gordon; 'Children's Rights,' by Mrs. Wiggin; 'Zachary Phips,' an historical novel by E. L. Bynner; and a holiday edition of Longfellow's 'Evangeline,' with Darley's illustrations reduced.

Mr. Edward Eggleston, Elizabeth Eggleston Seelye, and Allegra Eggleston will collaborate in a series of popular historical works, called "Delights of History," beginning with 'The Story of Columbus.' D. Appleton & Co. will be the publishers.

Ginn & Co. publish directly 'The Place of the Story in Early Education, and Other Essays,' by Sara E. Wiltse, with an introductory note by President G. Stanley Hall.

We have referred more than once to the effect of the new copyright legislation in making the publication of plays again profitable. Mr. W. S. Gilbert had already printed the most of his plays, and Mr. Bronson Howard had put two or three of his into print. Mr. Pinero is now engaged in publishing regularly all his more successful plays. It is this state of affairs, perhaps, which has helped to bring about the discussion now raging in London as to the reason why the British novelists do not write for the theatre. Some of them do, notably Mr. Robert Buchanan and Mr. Hall Caine. Now it is announced that there will shortly be published a volume containing three plays written by Mr. Robert Louis Stevenson in collaboration with Mr. W. E. Henley. One of these plays, "Deacon Brodie," has been acted in New York and elsewhere in America. Another, "Beau Austin," has had a few experimental performances in London. The third, "Admiral Guinea," has not as yet been produced anywhere. None of them is of recent writing; indeed, all three of them were privately printed at least six or seven years ago.

The revived interest in the South Sea marked by recent English fiction and by the republication of Mr. Stoddard's 'South Sea Idylls' is fanned afresh by the U. S. Book Co.'s. reprint of Herman Melville's works, beginning with 'Typee' and its sequel 'Omoo.' Mr. Arthur Stedman prefixes to the first-named narrative a biographical sketch of the author, whose portrait also accompanies the same volume.

We have already noticed that portion of the "*Gentleman's Magazine* Library" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) which relates to English Topography. This series is compiled by George L. Gomme, and the second volume, recently issued, covers the notes relating to the counties of Cambridge, Cheshire, Cornwall, and Cumberland. Its 328 pages, however, do not contain anything very interesting; the only article of any literary merit being that on Morwenstow in Cornwall, written by its vicar, the late brilliant and eccentric poet, R. S. Hawker. As a supplement to a good gazetteer of England, these volumes have a certain value, though the contributions to the old *Gentleman's Magazine* were of course fragmentary and incomplete. The old engravings were the most valuable part, and these are omitted in the reprint. We should have preferred the illustrations without the text, if either was to be dropped.

The twelfth edition of Hoblyn's 'Dictionary of Terms Used in Medicine and the Collateral Sciences' (London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan) is chiefly, as the editor, Dr. Price, advertises in the preface, changed by way of additions, and among these he specifies the newer words and phrases relating to bacteriology (though we observe that *microbe* is not introduced), and the indication of the period in which celebrated physicians lived. Public opinion, it appears, has not sanctioned the reformatory attempt to substitute *k* for *c* as the equivalent of the Greek. *k*, so the *kako-*, *kephal-*, and *kerato-* of the tenth edition have been restored to their place among the *c*'s. The Greek of the Dictionary, by the way, is not to be judged for its accuracy by the unfortunate κὴλμ (for κήλη) which still disfigures the preface to the tenth edition, here repeated.

Although since the foundation of the Grolier Club in New York there are fewer writers who refer to the famous collector as though he were a binder—a blunder made by the London *Daily Telegraph* more than once—yet the facts of Grolier's life are little known. The standard book on the subject is M. Leroux de Lincy's 'Recherches,' published in Paris twenty-six years ago. Mr. W. L. Andrews has now prepared a brief biography, 'Jean Grolier de Servier, Viscount d'Aguisy. Some Account of his Life and of his famous Library.' This is a pleasantly but carelessly written booklet, of interest chiefly from its illustrations, some of them in colors, reproducing the Grolier bindings now in New York. These plates, prepared by Mr. Bierstadt's artotype process, are excellent, but it is to be regretted that they represent almost the same bindings as were admirably reproduced in the *Century*, two or three years ago, to illustrate an account of the Grolier Club. The typography of Mr. Andrews's little book is such as we expect from the DeVinne Press.

Prof. Charles Letourneau contributes to the Contemporary Science Series (London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners) a treatise entitled 'Property: Its Origin and Development.' He begins with an account of property among animals, and, following the institution down through savage and barbarous times, leaves it at the end of the feudal system. While he has shown great industry in collecting all sorts of information, much of which is not without interest, his work is wholly uncritical. The tales of all travellers are listened to by him with the credulity of an Herodotus, and it makes little difference whether they concern the institution of property or not. The whole of Plutarch's account of the legislation of Lycurgus is accepted as if it were the testimony of an eye-witness. Of course much that is cited by Prof. Letourneau is from trustworthy informants, but the book is not of a kind to be admitted into any really scientific series.

P. Y. Crowell & Co. publish a little volume, entitled 'Equitable Taxation,' which is made up of seven essays by different authors. The appearance of such a book indicates that the subject is attracting the attention of students, but we find nothing in these essays that shows any originality of thought; and they are too slight to contain many of the lessons of experience.

Of somewhat more importance is a book entitled 'Who Pays Your Taxes?' compiled by Mr. Bolton Hall, issued by the authority of the New York Tax Reform Association, and published by Putnams in their "Questions of the Day" series. Its chief interest lies in the fact that it shows the existence of an aggressive movement to abolish taxation of personal property and concentrate it upon real estate.

'English Social Reformers' is the title of a work by H. de B. Gibbins (London: Methuen & Co.) which reviews the life and deeds of a number of men who have sought to improve the condition of their fellows. The selection ranges from 'Piers the Plowman' to Carlyle and Ruskin. Its spirit may be judged from the statement that Lord Shaftesbury incurred "opprobrium, contempt, and misrepresentation from interested people like the late John Bright."

Social questions have aroused such intensity of feeling in England of late years that it is difficult for a foreigner to obtain information as to matters of fact that is not distorted by the prejudices of the informant. 'The Rural Exodus,' however, by P. Anderson Graham (London: Methuen & Co.), is an impartial discussion of the circumstances of the agricultural laborer in England, and, as it is based upon the personal observation of the author, continued through many years in most of the English shires, it is a really valuable contribution to our knowledge of a problem—the movement of population from the country to the towns—which is not less perplexing in the New World than in the Old.

The return of the cholera has brought down from the booksellers' shelves two works, both written in 1885 and both especially designed for professional readers. One, 'A Treatise on

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Asiatic Cholera' (William Wood & Co.), edited and prepared by Dr. E. C. Wendt and others, is practically an encyclopædia of the history and, as far as known, of the cause, course, treatment, and prevention of the disease. It is too voluminous to assist in an emergency, and too professional, except in the historical division, to interest the inquisitive layman; but it well represents the state of knowledge seven years ago, and the student who masters it will have an easy task to acquire the small gain made since.

The other, 'A Treatise on Epidemic Cholera,' by Prof. A. B. Palmer, M.D., etc. (Ann Arbor, Michigan: *Register* Publishing House), goes over similar ground, but with the exclusion of much matter. The section on treatment, which is the vital one in both, is eminently wise and practical, and is based on an extensive personal experience which was manifestly guided by cool thought and energetic action. By virtue of what he has seen and done, this writer breathes into the subject a life that is unattainable by those whose descriptions come from the library and not from the bedside. The novice will find marked out a judicious course for all the sudden phases of this frightful and swift disease. The practitioner who has treated cholera will study with pleasure and advantage the career of so intelligent an observer under similar conditions.

The State Historical Society of Wisconsin has just published the twelfth octavo of its collections. This volume of five hundred pages opens with a memoir of Dr. Draper, who died a year ago after a long life dedicated to building up the Society, and who made it sole heir of his fortune. More than a hundred pages are filled with papers relating to the early Northwest, gleaned from Canadian archives. Papers of two early Indian agents, and a remarkable roster of employees in the service of the American Fur Company, are also here preserved. A specially noteworthy article is the journal of a commissioner sent by the Secretary of War as recently as 1830 into Wisconsin "to provide a country and a home there for 2,240 New York Indians among Menomonees and Winnebagoes." This was two years before the first land-sale in Chicago, and while it was still thought that the region beyond the lakes was too far off for agricultural settlement. Among other monographs are the story of the Black Hawk War, by Mr. Thwaites, Dr. Draper's successor; "Early Schools in Green Bay," the oldest town in the State; "How Wisconsin Came by its Large German Element"—a percentage larger than in any other State; and "The Planting of the Swiss Colony at New Glarus," by one of the first comers in 1845. The rise, progress, and influence of this unique establishment were set forth in the *Nation* as long ago as No. 944. There is also an article by a veteran missionary among the Chippewas, explaining the significance of geographical names in and near Wisconsin derived from the Chippewa dialect.

A. Lovell & Co. have begun bi-monthly publication of a series of "American History Leaflets, Colonial and Constitutional," edited by Profs. A. B. Hart and Edward Channing of Harvard. Four of these consist of the letter of Columbus to Santangel announcing his discovery, with an extract from his journal; the Ostend Manifesto of 1854; extracts from the sagas describing the voyages to Vinland; and extracts from official declarations of the United States embodying the Monroe Doctrine. These valuable little tracts, for which the editors bespeak suggestions as to subjects, are sold at five or ten cents each, or can be had by the year for thirty cents.

Mr. Roland Trimen, F.R.S., Curator of the South African Museum at Cape Town, makes his report to the Trustees for 1891, from which it appears that his time, together with that of the Assistant Curator, Mr. L. Péringuey, has been largely occupied with researches in South African entomology, which it is hoped will soon be published. Numerous and varied specimens have been acquired by the museum during the year, but insect pests are the source of much difficulty in the permanent preservation of the skins of the larger animals, of which the museum possesses a goodly representation. The unfortunate loss by theft of a number of valuable diamonds and nuggets is recorded. The museum is soon to receive an important acquisition, no less than a plaster cast of the skeleton of the great extinct reptile *Pariasaurus baini*, from the South African Karoo, discovered by Prof. H. G. Seeley, and now in the British Museum, whose Trustees have forwarded the cast to the exhibition now in progress at Kimberley, South Africa, on the conclusion of which the model is to be removed to Cape Town. The old museum building adjoining the Parliament House has long furnished quarters wholly unsuitable for its important collections, but the extension of the premises has hitherto been delayed by the unfavorable condition of the revenue, together with the prospect that the new museum might form part of the projected University Buildings. A further effort, however, is making to erect an independent institution at an early date.

In a recent number of the London *Times* a page is given to a facsimile reproduction of a leaf of the newly discovered papyrus of the Septuagint shown at the Oriental Congress held in that city. The whole manuscript consists of sixteen leaves, written on both sides, each about 10 inches by 7 inches, and is bound in a book form "in a primitive but very careful manner." It contains the greater part of Zechariah and parts of Malachi, the text differing somewhat from that used by the translators of our English Bible. Its age can only be conjectured, though the uncial characters in which it is written and the absence of divisions between the words indicate an antiquity as great as, if not greater than, that of the oldest manuscripts of the New Testament—that is, as early as the fourth century. Prof. Hechler of Vienna, in concluding his description of the papyrus, urged upon the British Government its "pressing duty" to institute an organized and scientific search for papyri in Egypt. "It was impossible to forecast what surprises might be in store for us, or what treasures might be placed at the disposal of modern scholarship."

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, issues three fine panel portraits, half life-size—one of the late George William Curtis and two front views of James Russell Lowell, between which there is considerable choice, though each is desirable as a memorandum. The series to which they belong is a notable one, as our readers are well aware.

—Mr. Paul Leicester Ford has just edited a convenient little volume containing those writings of Columbus which illustrate his discoveries (C. L. Webster & Co.). He makes use of English versions heretofore published, but he has not always selected the best, and new translations would have been an improvement in some cases. The editor's introduction is a curious specimen of hero-worship, through thick and thin. He acknowledges the truth of all the charges which have been brought against the Admiral for incontinency, desertion of wife, treachery, deceit, cruelty, oppression, craziness, and all else, but argues that any delineation of the personal character of a man of the fifteenth century which uncovers these qualities is a projection backward of the nineteenth, and is therefore "not critical." It seems to weigh nothing with him that the intellectual and moral mentors of all ages, civilized and even barbaric, have denounced these traits as unworthy of countenance. He seems to be unaware that there are no so severe defamers of the personal character of Columbus as those accusers of the Admiral, in respect to one and all of these characteristics, who should have been born, to suit Mr. Ford's views, in the nineteenth century, but who happened to see the light as contemporaries of the man they contemned.

—The latest fruit of the present revival of interest in the mysterious foundling of Nuremberg is Max Schütte's 'Kaspar Hauser: Das Rätsel ist nicht gelöst' (Hagen: Risel). The pamphlet is a reply to Baron von Artin's recently noticed brochure. As regards the enigma in question, Herr Schütte confesses at the outset that he has no solution to offer, and doubts whether it ever will be cleared up. He is inclined to regard Kaspar Hauser as a swindler, admits that he must have been a long time in close confinement, and assumes that he was a common jail-bird, forgetting that on this supposition there ought not to have been the slightest difficulty in ascertaining why and where he had been imprisoned. The most important proof adduced by Von Artin, namely, the letter of Grand-Duke Ludwig to Von Berstett, is passed over very lightly. Its genuineness is questioned on the ground that such documents have often been forged and people deceived thereby. Even if genuine, our author thinks it does not necessarily refer to Kaspar Hauser, but may have been called forth by "eine Attake auf ein Weib"; for "old Ludwig was a great sinner" and led a scandalous life. The Grand-Duke, although an inveterate libertine, is not known to have had any liaison in Nuremberg, nor is it customary for a sovereign, however shameless, to write to a minister of state beseeching him to see to it that the peace of the realm is not disturbed simply because he has failed in an intrigue with a woman. On the whole, Herr Schütte's arguments are so weak, and his interpretations of the facts so unsatisfactory, that they tend to confirm in the minds of his readers the theory which he endeavors to refute.

—Still another of the European universities has announced its decision that in the opportunity for university education and university degrees there shall be, as in religion, "neither male nor female." This time it is the University of Glasgow that speaks. During the past summer the Universities Commissioners have empowered the courts of the several Universities of Scotland to admit women to graduation in such faculty or faculties as each court may think fit, and to provide for the education of candidates either in mixed classes of men and women or in separate classes. Almost immediately after this ordinance was issued, an offer was made by the Council of Queen Margaret College to hand over to the University of Glasgow the government, the endowments present and prospective, and the buildings of the College—"the endowments and buildings to be reserved for the exclusive education of women, and the College to be-

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come incorporated with the University as its department for women." The College, which, by the acceptance of this offer, has become an integral part of the University of Glasgow, began its existence in 1877 as an association for the higher education of women. In 1883, with the help and encouragement of some of the University professors who had been active in teaching and organizing, the Association incorporated itself as a college. In 1884, large and handsome buildings, about ten minutes' walk from the University, were bought for the College by Mrs. Elder. These buildings have, with the consent of the generous donor, now passed into the control of the Court and Senate of the University, and Queen Margaret College has, at a single step, passed over the ambiguous stage of "affiliation" into the unequivocal dignity of corporate membership.

—Dr. and Mrs. William Huggins of London have contributed to the Proceedings of the Royal Society during recent months a series of papers on that remarkable new star which the astronomers call Nova Aurigæ. This star's striking increase in magnitude of late renders it worthy of special note, and the spectroscopic observations and deductions will not be found of less interest. Throughout February and early March the star's light fluctuated continually, declining very slowly the while from easy naked-eye visibility at the 4½ magnitude down to the 6th magnitude, when the eye could just detect it. In the second week in March, the strange vibrations of light-intensity probably due to commotions attendant upon the cause of this stellar outburst, calmed down; and the star fell rapidly and regularly to the 11th magnitude, March 24, and then again down to the 14½ magnitude April 1, when a telescope of large dimension would have been required in order to see it at all. In this condition of inactivity it remained until August, when there was a sudden outburst which is reported to have carried it back to the 9th magnitude. Altogether, the fluctuations of its brightness have been apparently lawless, and the complex character of its spectrum has given rise to much discussion.

—We have no knowledge of the distance of Nova Aurigæ, but the assumption is not an improbable one that its distance was of the same order of greatness as that of the Nova of 1876, for which Sir Robert Ball failed to detect any parallax whatever. In this case the light-emission so suddenly set up, certainly within two days and possibly within a few hours, was probably much greater than that of our sun; yet within fifty days after it had been discovered, at the end of January, its light had fallen to about one-three-hundredth part, and in some three months to nearly the one-ten-thousandth part. As long as the Nova's spectrum was observable, the chief lines remained without material alteration of relative brightness. Under what conditions could we suppose the sun to cool down sufficiently for its light to decrease to a similar extent in so short a time, and without the oncoming of material changes in its spectrum? It seems scarcely conceivable that such phenomena can be due to the conversion of gravitational energy (*e.g.*, from collision with bodies already possessed of considerable motion) into light and heat. The hypothesis of prodigious tidal disturbances caused by a near approach without collision, on the other hand, appears to explain the facts so well that Dr. Huggins is disposed to abandon the view advanced by Dr. Miller and himself, in the case of the Nova of 1866, that possibly chemical actions between the erupted gases and the outer atmosphere of the star may have contributed to its sudden and transient splendor—a view not at all impossible, but rendered less probable by the advance of our knowledge of the light-changes of stars.

—An official report has been published in the Pekin *Gazette* of the investigation ordered by the Chinese Government in respect to the anti-foreign literature which was the chief incitement to the recent massacres. This consisted of leaflets, pamphlets, placards, ballads, and pictures, many of them horribly indecent, which were circulated by millions in the interior of the empire. Their authorship was traced to one Chou Han, a high official in the Province of Hunan, and it was to secure his punishment that the investigation was made at the urgent demand of the foreign representatives in Pekin. The report is singularly characteristic of the Chinese. It alleges that Chou Han was not the writer of the placards, but that his name was used as that of a person in high position, in order to attract more attention; furthermore, that he is a madman, who has "spiritualistic fancies, being a great believer in divination by the planchette," and that he has disappeared. It is proposed, nevertheless, that, although innocent of the charge, he should be temporarily cashiered and kept at home under surveillance for enabling his name to be used for bad purposes through his conduct. The punishment of two booksellers, by a flogging of eighty blows and three months' wooden collars, is recommended, as well as that a strict search should be instituted for the real authors of the placards. The main purpose of the report, which at the end affirms the freedom of any to become Christians, is apparently to shield Chou Han and to defeat the foreign ministers. In regard to the accusations made in these publications against Europeans of murder and mutilation, Dr. Macgowan, long a resident in the country, has published a statement to show that from the point of view of Chinese medicine they are far from preposterous. He refers to a Materia Medica, "the only authoritative work of the kind in the Chinese language, which gives 37 anthropophagous remedies of native medicine." Among other things, "human muscles are supposed to be a good medicament in consumption, and cases are constantly recorded of children who mutilate themselves to administer their flesh to sick parents." It is essential in all these cases that the recipient should be kept in profound ignorance of the nature of the potion administered, and in no case is the mutilation to be performed for an inferior, "as by a husband for a wife, or a parent for a child." This method of treating diseases is apparently on the increase, far more than is indicated by the occasional imperial decrees authorizing honorary portals to be erected in honor of men, and particularly of women, for these flesh offerings, as only the higher classes can obtain such a distinction.

RECENT NOVELS.

A Spoil of Office: A Story of the Modern West. By Hamlin Garland. Boston: Arena Publishing Co.

A Little Norsk, or Ol' Pap's Flaxen. By Hamlin Garland. D. Appleton & Co.

Silhouettes of American Life. By Rebecca Harding Davis. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Naulahka: A Story of West and East. By Rudyard Kipling and Wolcott Balestier. Macmillan & Co.

The Average Woman. By Wolcott Balestier. With a preface by Henry James. U. S. Book Co.

The Wrecker. By R. L. Stevenson and Lloyd Osbourne. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Beggars All. By L. Dougall. Longmans, Green & Co.

Capt'n Davy's Honeymoon: A Manx Yarn. By Hall Caine. D. Appleton & Co.

THE flavor of the soil which Mr. Garland unquestionably succeeds in giving to his stories of Western life is so palpably due to the bludgeon-like quality of his realism that what little charm might be got from the commonplace histories of his Bradley Talcotts and Bert Gearhearts is entirely lost. Neither his story of 'A Little Norsk,' which, under the name of its sub-title, 'Ol' Pap's Flaxen,' has lately ended as a serial in the *Century*, nor 'A Spoil of Office,' is deeply interesting. There is a directness about the telling, however, and an evidence in them that they are true to the facts as the author has seen them, which makes them readable. But being true to facts is not, necessarily, being true to nature. Facts do not make art, nor do they make literature; and if the novelist—who, in telling a story which is a fiction, acknowledges to a certain extent this truism—insists upon furnishing that story with but a setting of bare facts, he must not be disappointed if even their completeness and accuracy fail to entitle his work to be called literature. One notices, too, a certain carelessness in Mr. Garland's workmanship which might lead one to distrust the accuracy of his observations without shaking one's faith in his honesty. And, on the whole, if a book does not show genius, perhaps honesty is the next best thing.

Mrs. Davis has gathered, under the suggestive title, 'Silhouettes of American Life,' a baker's dozen of short stories—sketches rather—which, in spite of their lightness, their briefness both of matter and interest, are worth the reading. The great poets, as Lowell says, have found man more interesting than nature; have considered nature as no more than the necessary scenery, artistically harmful if too pompous or obtrusive, before which man acts his tragi-comedy of life. And so, as extremes meet, the average reader usually finds his liking following in similar lines. Long and labored descriptions bore him, or, more often, merely serve as an opportunity for indulging in the art of skipping. Mrs. Davis is always ready to place her mountains and her woods in due prominence, and is evidently a lover of the out-door world; but it is the human interest, after all, which is first with her and which gives the best value to her work. It helps to make the tales natural as well; for in a short story which has a genuine bit of human interest to start with, there is no need for striving after effects, either scenic or dramatic. "A Wayside Episode" is perhaps the poorest, because the most artificial, of the collection. The situation seems impossible, and that is enough to spoil it, even had the incidents actually happened. Among the rest, where there is such an even range of excellence, it would be hard to pick.

After a somewhat lengthy preamble, the key-note of 'The Naulahka' is struck sharply, in the sentence—"So, leaving strife and desolation behind him, rode out into the desert of Rajputana Nicholas Tarvin of Topaz, Colorado." Imagination instantly prefigures the intended contrast of newness and freedom with age and acquiescent servitude, and warms to the coming combat between the West and East—Nich-

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olas Tarvin against all India. But very soon it becomes clear that there is something wrong with 'The Naulahka,' that its fine promise is not being sustained, and that both faith and hope are to be severely tried in following Tarvin's quest for the necklace worth an exceptionally good king's ransom, supposed to be lying about in the Province of Gokral Seetarum, Rajputana, India. Chapter after chapter of dull talk and incidents irrelevant to the chief situation tempts the hasty judgment that Mr. Kipling has written himself and India out, and that the time has come for him to rest awhile on his laurels. It is natural that he should have to shoulder the onus of failure, for his collaborator was unknown to the public, and, besides, died before the completion of the book. Yet, confronted by the inferiority of 'The Naulahka' to his previously published work, it would be unfair not to take for granted a heavy handicap either in the effort to collaborate, from the beginning, in the loss of Mr. Balestier, or both.

Mr. Kipling's vivid, hit-or-miss style flashes out only at rare intervals in a short dialogue or phrase; it is never sustained through a long scene or description. His amusing, cocksure dicta are noticeably scarce, and, in the untidy "make-up," there is no hint that his natural method is almost rudely direct. Mr. Balestier was probably responsible for Tarvin in the beginning, when that strange mortal shows that he possesses in excess the initiative force attributed to him. His development may have been left on Mr. Kipling's hands and proved too much for him. Certain it is that, after reaching the city of Rhatore, Tarvin does nothing beyond seizing flagrantly favorable opportunities, either to find the necklace or to win his sweetheart away from devotion to the oppressed women of India. He wastes his time in dancing before the King, who is consumed with mirth beholding his antics, and whose translators confess themselves baffled by Tarvin Sahib's phrases. Well they may be, for his talk has generally the air of a compilation from a dictionary of American slang which has been arranged and explained by an Englishman. His manners make a wild caricature of the free-and-easy ways of the West, and, for the figure of a romantic adventurer, he has no qualification except physical courage.

The probable future of Kate, with her mania for morality, after she has intrusted herself to such a conscienceless monkey, is a dark subject for speculation. Kate's experiments in civilizing India form the moral of the tale. Mr. Kipling of course could not permit anything but defeat to come to a slip of a girl arraying her frail enthusiasms against "thousands of years of tradition and training and habits of life." Nevertheless, girls in their generous, ignorant youth will probably continue to wage unequal war against the devil, and may at last cause him some discomfort in even so inaccessible a fastness as an Eastern harem.

Mr. Balestier's three short stories of Western American life, published under the title, 'The Average Woman,' show greater ability and promise than anything in 'The Naulahka' that may be with probability attributed to him. Each incident is well chosen to display some of the apparent irrelevancies and queer contradictions of human character, and the interest is closely confined to one issue. It is doubtful whether the women justify the pretension implied by the title to a profound and exhaustive study of that sex which, if it may include such a savage bully as "Reffey," can be called the "gentler" one only by a painful deference to convention. A clever young man easily makes the mistake of supposing that he could have given Solomon points about women, and Mr. Balestier seems to have been slightly in thrall to that delusion. Berna, the heroine of "Captain, My Captain!" and the lady who, in "A Common Story," confides the sting and sorrow of unrequited love, are typical of classes of women whose intelligence is not dazzling; but "Reffey" is that flashy, noisy creature, spectacular and infinitely vicious, whom theatrical people have in mind when they talk about a strong creation. Mr. James's prefatory essay is only a tribute to friendship. His sincere admiration and affection for Mr. Balestier are not expressed with his customary literary fluency and grace, but he makes us feel all the more, perhaps, that the world is the poorer through the loss of his friend.

It is an excellent rule for a novel-writer to sustain the facts bearing on his case, no matter what the cost in repression of great ideas. A rigid observance of the rule will not make his novel more like the whole of any life, most of whose incidents are totally irrelevant to the main facts, but it will make more satisfactory and agreeable reading, besides what we call, perhaps for want of a more definite phrase, a better work of art. As there are occasional people born with such a store of vitality that they continue to live exultantly, almost for ever, in insolent defiance of every rule laid down by the wise for the preservation of health, so there are, though even more rarely, people born with such an astounding literary gift that they can afford to fling to the winds the best of rules and every conceivable theory of art. Of these *were* Sir Walter and Victor Hugo and Thackeray, and of these (*pace*, idolaters of the splendid past!) *is* the author of 'The Wrecker.' 'The Wrecker,' it is true, owns two authors, but, however valuable Mr. Osbourne's collaboration may have been, the long yarn as it is spun in print is Mr. Stevenson's. It is a curious fact, and not specially comforting to Mr. Kipling, that the very same faults which irritate and exasperate the reader of 'The Naulahka' appear in aggravated form in 'The Wrecker,' where their effect is to inspire deep and lasting joy. The first shift of the scene, from the Marquesas to the "Muskegon Commercial Academy," rudely shocks the sense for literary propriety; but, at this point, the office of literary critic is promptly vacated by a person of feelings and given over to Dryasdust, with his *flair* for faulty articulation. We pass from Muskegon to the Latin Quarter in Paris, back to San Francisco by way of Uncle Adam's respectable household in Edinburgh, and have recovered from the agitating auction of the *Flying Scud* before we reflect that we have been invited to read the tale of a wrecker, and have only now, after two hundred pages, got fairly on his trail.

The extraordinary bidding for the wreck on Midway Island is the first hint that we are approaching the knot of the story, and, when the wreckers have inspected their purchase, driven hard over a coral reef and stuck head down in the sand, we perceive that the knot is a very tight one. Leisurely and rambling is the process of untying, dooming to hopeless confusion the mind that insists on placing the hero of each startling adventure and attaching him definitely to the *Nora Creina*, or the *Flying Scud*, or the *Currency Lass*. The author's skill in investing whatever he chooses to tell with absorbing interest is more noticeable in the last half of the book even than in the first, for the consciousness that there is a mystery of abysmal depths naturally rouses an intolerance of digressions. Here the only digression which is not diverting is the account of the journey undertaken by Dodd and the shyster, Bellairs, to find Carthew, the man who could tell all if he would. A great many men of widely different nature and character appear in the story (there is no woman worth mentioning), and this Bellairs is the only unreal one among them. Pinkerton shows exaggeration and a superficial acquaintance with the model, yet he is, on the whole, impressively real. But Bellairs is a tiresome wretch, no more like any one you might happen to meet than are Uriah Heep and similarly objectionable persons. Dodd could have found Carthew quite easily without Bellairs, and he was of no sort of use in forcing Carthew's hand. Carthew parts with his secret perhaps a trifle too readily, but the temptation to tell his wonderful tale once in a while must have been irresistible. In his climax he positively revels in carnage and drenches all hands with gore. But supposing that mercy had been shown to the crew of the *Flying Scud*, and that even Brown had not "gone the same way," what would have become of Carthew and the rest of the mild-mannered castaways? In such a desperate strait there was only one way out—the way which the author foresaw when he contrived the situation. There is no doubt that, for a person of uniformly gentle sentiment, Mr. Stevenson takes a strange delight in a fight to the death, and that he would not experience a qualm at the sight of the whole Pacific turned red with human blood.

The author of 'Beggars All' has done three rather difficult things well: she has so deeply considered and clearly expressed one character that his highly improbable crime loses most of its improbability and all of its sensationalism; she has shown how a group of perfectly commonplace women may be charming in every relation of life; and she has proved that broad views about life are not incompatible with rigid religious orthodoxy. Hubert Kent's history illustrates some of the worst results of modern philanthropy, applied to the upbringing of nobody's children. It is not a condemnation of philanthropic effort, but a shrewd and instructed criticism, pointing out that nobody's child, even as somebody's, may have an individuality, and that better results might be obtained through some slight recognition of that possibility by those in authority in orphan asylums and other receptacles for superfluous children. Kent's intelligence raised him socially above his wretched beginnings, but his scant native morality was reduced or distorted by the system of the Croom Orphanage, out of which he issued with only one idea, a cynical belief in his right to get a share of power and luxury in the quickest and easiest way. The means he adopted make the story; and though the author carefully avoids comment on his arguments in his own favor, she can never be taken to believe them sound or exculpatory. Her feeling and judgment are expressed through the women who become closely involved in Kent's life, and are therefore the great sufferers from his crimes. Through the women, too, her religious faith is developed, and her position maintained that we are beggars all for human love and still more for God's help and mercy. The author's method and style are remarkably good and distinctly modern. Though she has been hitherto unknown, at least in America, she has the practised touch. Her unadorned, strong phrases reflect a clear intelligence and

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a thorough appreciation of what is now demanded of those who would make themselves felt in literature.

Mr. Hall Caine's story, 'Capt'n Davy's Honeymoon,' echoes a favorite device of the Elizabethan and Restoration comedy. A silly quarrel between man and wife is adjusted by the intervention of a friend of each working in collusion. In the old dramas, not excluding Shakspere's, there is something artificial and mechanical about this stratagem which jars on modern sense for reality. It is a wholly objectionable situation in comedy unhallowed by age and the tradition of respect. Mr. Caine's use of it results in a particularly uninteresting and wooden performance. To believe in the story for a moment, you have also to believe that Capt'n Davy and his wife were utter idiots, and then ensues indignation at being supposed willing to occupy yourself with their idiocy. Everybody knows that there are Manx cats—grotesque and abnormal pussies, but still pussies. Perhaps Capt'n Davy is a real Manx man—few are in a position absolutely to deny it, with proof; but all who read the story of his honeymoon may perceive that he is a departure from the normal type, and that his points of difference make him no less absurd an animal than is his compatriot cat. What has become of Mr. Caine's literary discretion? Has he lost it in his wanderings among the pictorial heathen, or is he really unconscious of anything ridiculous in filling the mouth of a more or less drunken Manx sailor with the poetic phrase of the flowery-tongued East?

HARRISSE'S DISCOVERY OF NORTH AMERICA.—II.

The Discovery of North America, etc. By Henry Harrisse. London: H. Stevens & Son. 1892.

We come now to Vespucius and the disputed voyage of 1497, in which Mr. Fiske has revived interest by the energetic way in which he has reënforced the Varnhagen theory of its authenticity, and his disdainful references to the opponents of that belief. He has depended largely upon what Harrisse had done in his earlier work on the Cortereals in relation to the Cantino map to substantiate the earlier efforts of Varnhagen. Harrisse at that time acknowledged that we must look to the voyage of 1497 as the source in large part of the delineation of the coast which corresponds to Florida in that early map which has become closely associated with Harrisse's name, though he was not the first to make it known. "The evidence set forth in connection with the Cantino map," says Mr. Fiske in his preface, "is especially significant." But Harrisse, in the present work, has quite as significantly, in vulgar parlance, "gone back on him"; for he devotes a special chapter to show why we need not resort to the Vespucian voyage to find a source for the Cantino Florida. It may be remarked, in passing, that Mr. Markham has within a month claimed that this coast is not Florida at all, except in the minds of those "who are not used to the examination of maps," but that it is merely some American coast which the maker of the map borrowed inexpertly from the cards of the Cortereals, as showing some part of their discoveries. In his list of voyages Harrisse mentions the Vespucian one of 1497, but doubts its authenticity, and while he is evidently inclined to avoid explicit denial, he leaves the matter, in his biographical sketch of Vespucius, just as many others have left it, a chronological puzzle. This is the dilemma as Harrisse puts it: Vespucius returned in October, 1498, as the Italian text of his letter avers, or in October, 1499, as the Latin text says. Harrisse accepts the latter date, for not very evident reasons. If 1499 was the year, Vespucius could not have started on a second voyage in the previous May, as he says he did. Moreover, good testimony says that Vespucius started on a voyage with Ojeda in the summer of 1499, so that he could hardly have done this and have got home from his first voyage in the following October. So the puzzle stands in Harrisse's figuring. Humboldt saw the difficulty, and preferred to think the dates were wrong rather than impugn Vespucius's integrity.

We now need to take up a few points of the controversy in detail. As respects the alibi which Navarrete, Muñoz, Humboldt, and very recently Markham claim to make out for Vespucius, and the evidence for which is discarded by Varnhagen and Fiske, Harrisse says that a careful search of the records in the Casa de Contratacion fails to establish it, for there is no trace of the Florentine navigator in the Spanish archives between January, 1496, and May, 1499; so that on present evidence, if Harrisse's search is not at fault, no alibi can be made out against the voyage. To account for the Floridian coast in the Cantino map, the judgment of Harrisse, revised since he published his 'Cortereals,' allows evidence enough to warrant the belief that numerous explorers had already been along this coast. Some of them were under the authority which Ferdinand and Isabella began to give on April 10, 1495, in defiance of Columbus's exclusive privileges; others were under patents granted by Henry VII. of England to English and Portuguese adventurers; and still others were the Normans and Bretons, who are reported as early as 1500 bringing home dyewood and monkeys from the American tropics, and of whom DeGonneville speaks in 1505 as mariners of Dieppe and St. Malo who "for some years past" have been in the habit of going to these regions. Therefore Harrisse's present decision is that these voyages are independent sources, which might have inspired the Cantino Florida without help from Vespucius. Again, Vespucius says he kept in sight of land all the way. If he did and his data were used in the Cantino map, why do we have gaps in the coast line of the Gulf of Mexico? It is only in the Stobnicza and Waldseemüller maps that we find such a continuity, and not in the Cantino nor in the Canerio map—to which Harrisse now introduces us, as being of but a little later date than the Cantino. It may be added that the Ruysch map and the Schöner globes have the same lack of continuity. Harrisse is of the opinion that Vespucius must have seen and approved the Cantino map, showing this break where he professed to know there was none. Further, there is no indisputable evidence that the northern coast of the Gulf of Mexico was coursed by any one before the Spaniards followed it in 1519.

Mr. Fiske makes a great deal of a rather curious typo-topographical discrepancy instanced first by Varnhagen, to which he constantly reverts, to show that so small a cause was at the bottom in large part of the discredit which has been heaped upon this voyage. The Italian text of Vespucius's letter gives "Lariab" as the place of his observations on the western coast of the Gulf of Mexico. The Latin text printed at St. Dié by the geographer of that cosmographical centre gives "Parias." Here is apparently bad proof-reading somewhere, either in one text or the other, and Mr. Fiske assumes it to be in the Latin text, because that was the text better known, and could more widely influence opinion by making it appear that Vespucius claimed to have been in the Gulf of Paria (Parias) in 1497, when everybody knew that Columbus had first visited those waters in 1498. Mr. Fiske prefers to account thus for the opprobrium under which Vespucius rests with most critics, rather than to strengthen the Varnhagen theory by ascribing the bad proof-reading to the Italian text—a mongrel Italian rendering, that had no critical editing. It is known that Columbus endeavored to prevent his way of reaching the Gulf of Paria from being known; but the track he had marked on a map sent back to Spain was disclosed by unfriendly authority to Ojeda. There is no evidence, however, that it was generally known, and the contemporary writers and cartographers were so much at a loss about the position of Paria that a school of learned students attached it to just that place where Vespucius claims to have been, and which there is quite as good reason for believing he called "Parias" as that he called it "Lariab." The similarity of the names, Parias and Paria, would easily have further misled the map-makers if they desired to locate the visit of Columbus in 1498. Even such a calumniator of Vespucius as Mr. Fiske would deem Herrera to be, seems to have perpetuated the error at a later day, when he says that before 1505 many voyagers had coursed the continent lying "towards the north" from Labrador to Paria. The fact is, that this Parias region on the Gulf of Mexico was recognized by certain cartographers for some time afterwards. We find it in the Hauslab gores of 1513-15, in the Schöner globes of 1515 and 1520; and it is noteworthy that in elucidation of his globe, wherein Parias is made a part of the northern continent, Schöner says in his 'Luculentissima Descriptio' that Parias is "a large *special* portion of the earth in that fourth part of the world." We find it again in the same region in the Nordenskiöld gores of 1517-18; in the Apianus map of 1520; in the Ptolemy of 1522; and in the MS. map of Glareanus in the University library at Munich which Harrisse assigns to 1528. It is also on the northern continent in the same way in several maps of an original portolano of that century which is in the Carter-Brown library in Providence.

We must here indulge in a little counter hypothesis to offset Mr. Fiske's assumption that the printed Italian text preceded the St.-Dié text, for his arguments do not wholly satisfy us against the opinion of Major and others, and his further belief that the printed Italian text was the one used by Giocondo in Paris in making the French version from which the St.-Dié translator prepared the Latin text of 1507. Waldseemüller does not tell us that the Italian text used was the printed one, and there is not the slightest evidence to show that it was. On the whole, it seems probable, in view of all the circumstances and the family acquaintance of Giocondo with Vespucius, that this Italian architect in Paris had instead a manuscript copy of Vespucius's letter, and in that event there is no evidence that he had the word "Lariab" before him at all. This is a point which we find, as we are writing it, that Mr. Markham has also made. Lariab is an unknown name. Harrisse, in the present volume, gives a copious list of all the geographical names which he has found in the early narratives and maps, and he encounters the name of Lariab nowhere else.

It may be added that Markham, the President of the Hakluyt Society and a geographer of high reputation, has just (September,

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1892) reëxamined the problem, and unreservedly places himself among those whom Mr. Fiske calls the critics of "mingled dulness and flippancy," who reject the Varnhagen theory. Mr. Markham probably too confidently accepts the alibi theory; but to sustain his denial of the voyage, he says the courses and distances given by Vespucius would have taken him to British Columbia—an error too great to be accounted for by a false reckoning, which is honest. Further he contends, as others have done, that the close counterparting of Ojeda's voyage of 1499 in the Vespucian details is very suspicious. Varnhagen failed to account for this and Fiske ignores it, as he does other proofs against the voyage.

There is one point more. Las Casas has asserted, Herrera and others following, that Pinzon and Solis in 1506 discovered the Honduras coast, prompted to the act by the results of Columbus's fourth voyage. There being no mention besides his own that Vespucius made this 1497 voyage, supporters of it are forced to find some expedition of that year in which he might have sailed in a subordinate capacity. Such a voyage Varnhagen has found in this alleged voyage of 1506, but as the date is in the way, they carry it back to 1497, by connecting it with the second rather than with the fourth voyage of Columbus. Harrisse says there is no evidence of any such voyage, either in 1497 or in 1506, and makes the rather rash assertion that *all* historians have followed Las Casas in assigning it to 1506. He does find proof, however, that it took place in 1508-9, and that the track was eastward from Honduras, instead of westward, citing Navarrete and Ferdinand Columbus in the 'Historie,' which citation gives rather more credit to this last book than Harrisse has been heretofore inclined to bestow upon it. Markham has recently undertaken to show that the Pinzon voyage was really in 1506, as one of his arguments to confront the Varnhagen claim that it took place in 1497.

There is no one of his averments upon which Harrisse lays more stress than upon the very early conception that some continental land had been found which was not Asia. The question is how long a belief in the neighboring coast being Asia lasted when, in the conception of navigators and map-makers, its lines began to be disentangled from the shores of Asia which Marco Polo had described. As was natural, some geographers went ahead of demonstration and some held back. It seems pretty evident that in La Cosa (1500) and in Ruysch (1508) the newly discovered lands were insular or uncertain appendages of Asia. Between 1501 and 1503 the cartographical idea began to develop that there was a chance of the new regions of continental proportions being independent of Asia, but with more or less uncertainty attached, as shown in cut-offs by the edge of the map or in overlying latitudinal scales. We can trace this growth through numerous maps like the Cantino, Canerio, Sylvanus, Waldseemüller, Boulenger or Tross gores, Reisch, the Ptolemy of 1522, Maiolo, and (even beyond the reaction initiated by Franciscus Monarchus) in Bordone and others. Emancipated from this uncertainty and with much bolder drafting of a new continent, we find a series of maps, beginning ten years later and exemplified in the Stobnicza (1512) map, and supported later in the Portuguese chart of the Pacific (1513), the Lenox globe, the alleged Da Vinci map, the Nordenskiöld gores, the Hauslab globe, the globes of Schöner and the Archipelago of Coppo (1528). We might come down farther. This is about the variety of view and corresponding data that circumspect historians have long recognized. With such conditions no critical student of these earlier days can dare to say with confidence that at any time there had been a general belief one way or the other. Nevertheless, Varnhagen contends that in 1497 Vespucius believed he had found a new continent—a belief in which Fiske does not follow him, for he represents that nobody so late as 1504, and after the Cantino and Canerio (first described in the bulletin of the Geographical Society at Lyons in 1890) maps had been made, believed that any continent had been found but Asia. Henry Stevens claimed that what passes for a new continent in the Cantino map (1502) was but a "bogus Cuba," and that the rudimentary Gulf of Mexico, as others see it in the Ptolemy map of 1513, was the Gulf of Ganges.

But Harrisse would go back even of the Cantino map for the first indication of a belief in a new continent distinct from Asia. He cites the authority given, July 20, 1500, to Mendoza to go west with four ships to discover islands and *continent*, and he is even inclined to think that La Cosa did not intend to recall the Asiatic coast by the continental land west and northwest of the West Indies. He contends that the natural geographical instinct of the time imagined the new land to have a coast which went in a rude way parallel to that of Asia, just as we find later that South America towards the pole is given an apex because Africa had one. He also says that the Spanish Government by 1501 had adopted some such notions, and thinks they prevailed in official circles in Portugal and England. We cannot allow that Harrisse's demonstration satisfies us in assigning so early a date to the birth of the continental idea. Nor can we accept his belief that Columbus in his last voyage knew that he was not on the coast of Asia, simply because he was in search of a strait, for it does not necessarily follow because he had not found all that Marco Polo pictured of Asia, that there might not be contiguous parts of that continent which barred his way to Cathay.

We had hoped that Harrisse would have found something more imposing than the insignificant little map of Franciscus Monarchus to form a cardinal point in the reaction which set in about 1526 to make North America and Asia one and the same, for as early as 1514 there were indications of it in the Portuguese portolano of that year, which bears Mahometan flags on the Atlantic Coast, and in the map of Ayllon's explorations about the Carolina shore in 1520, which depicts a Chinaman and elephants on the Atlantic watershed. Franciscus says he was induced to adopt this Asiatic view by the reports of Cortes's first expedition. Before we saw the facsimile of the Franciscus map here given by Harrisse, we had depended on the modern sketch of it given by Lelewel, for the little 'De Orbis Situ' which contains the map is very rare. There is good reason for believing, as Harrisse points out, that the lost globe of Schöner dated 1523 (in which he departed from the configuration so familiar in his globes of 1515 and 1520) had given just such a blending of Asia and America as Franciscus portrayed three years later, for Harrisse somewhat gloatingly discards, as Nordenskiöld has done, the gores which Henry Stevens and C. H. Coote have put forth as that missing globe. It is curious that Schöner's reasons for the reaction are quite different from those acknowledged by Franciscus, for he says that it was the results of Magellan's voyage which induced him to revise his opinions. It is further striking that one of our informants about that Magellanic voyage, Maximilianus Transylvanus, drew just the opposite conclusions, as Franciscus lets us know.

Schöner's globe of 1533, which reënforces his new views, is given in the present work in facsimile, as well as two other globes which we have not seen depicted before; and both support Schöner's new theory. One is the De Bure, or *Globe doré*, of about 1528, preserved in the Bibliothèque Nationale at Paris, which is apparently of German origin; and the other is a wooden globe in the same collection, found about ten or eleven years ago in Italy and supposed to have been made in 1535. The Finæus maps of 1531 and 1536 are perhaps the best known of this group of maps, which consists of a large number of examples coming down quite to the beginning of the seventeenth century; but after Mercator's time the notion began to fade. Students have only recently been placed under obligations to a Berlin society which has caused the great Mercator map of 1569 to be reproduced of the original size. This is only another instance of the way in which American scholars have of late years been put more nearly on a par for facilities in these studies with European students. The great Ribero map of the Propaganda (1529) has recently been made accessible. Harrisse has given us an admirable full-size reproduction of the Cantino map. Photography has placed the great Cabot mappemonde in ten of our principal American libraries. We are expecting to receive before long from Madrid an undiminished reproduction of the great oxhide map of La Cosa, which the present writer saw in 1853 at a Paris sale, when it was knocked down to an agent of the Queen of Spain.

We need not say anything of the atlases of Kohl, Kunstmann, Santarem, Jomard, and Nordenskiöld, which are indispensable in these cartographical studies, or of the various reproductions of a smaller size, which have frequently been made in this country and in Europe, several of which besides those already mentioned will be found in the work under review. Such is the great map at Turin and the polar-projected map of Juan Vespucius. Another new map here given is one illustrating the march of De Soto through our Southern States, and it will very likely go a good way in solving the problem which Dr. Scaife of the Johns Hopkins University has lately been discussing, as to whether the Rio del Spiritu Santo of the early maps was really our Mississippi. The American student owes much to the good work which Dr. Kohl did in making that collection of copies of the older maps which is now preserved at Washington, though, from the general advance in these studies and the increase of published reproductions, the collection has lost something of its value. In original maps of the earlier period our libraries are very deficient. We do not know of a single one of importance, and the portolano of about 1550—very likely by Baptista Agnese, or of his school—which was acquired in 1885 by the Carter-Brown Library at Providence, is the only atlas of the kind in this country which has come to our knowledge.

One more point and we have finished, having said but a small part of what the present book deserves. When the Mercator map of 1541 was first reproduced by the Royal Library at Brussels, it was thought to be unique, but five copies are now known. It has given rise to the opinion, which has been widely accepted, that it was the first map in which the name America, so long applied to the Southern

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Continent, was made to cover also the North American regions. Harrisse now brings to notice a wooden globe, with manuscript delineations, which was brought from Venice to the great library at Paris in 1879, and which from the calligraphy he places in the first quarter of the sixteenth century. This test, in view of the archaic tendencies of some scribes, is not always trustworthy; but the interesting fact is that this globe bears the word America on the Northern as well as on the Southern Continents, and may thus be a still earlier instance of such a comprehensive application. The fact, however, remains, that the published globe of Mercator, in 1541, earliest influenced popular opinion in making America to mean the entire New World, instead of a part of it.

DARWIN EXPOUNDED BY ROMANES.

Darwin and After Darwin. I. The Darwinian Theory. By George John Romanes. Chicago: The *Open Court* Publishing Co. 1892.

THERE was probably no one better fitted than Mr. Romanes to undertake a popular work such as this upon the Darwinian and post-Darwinian periods in the history of the evolution theory. The volume before us is mainly devoted to Natural Selection. The later period will be treated in a second volume covering the modern problems of Heredity, the controversy raised by Weismann's brilliant essays, and the discussion of the recent revival of the views of Lamarck by the American and English "Neo-Lamarckians." In these ten chapters upon the earlier period, closing with 1882, the year of Darwin's death, the author sustains his well-established reputation as a philosophical biologist; and although there is comparatively little controversial matter to be handled, he is in the main both fair and clear. The book shows these qualities in the author's attitude towards theism, in his very decided opposition to those who would make Darwin's "natural selection" the sole factor in organic evolution, and especially, throughout all the earlier chapters, in the temperate and convincing manner in which a running contrast is maintained between the inadequacy of the "special-creation hypothesis" and the adequacy of the "evolution" hypothesis" in rendering organic creation intelligible and purposeful. He clearly establishes the new teleology.

A discussion of the truth of the evolution theory now appears somewhat superfluous, but it belongs very properly to a work upon the Darwinian period, and the author has wisely thought it best not to ignore certain classes in France and Germany, and a surprisingly large number in some sections of this country, who are still unconverted. (The work is already being translated into French and German.) In the earlier chapters he therefore carefully restates all the familiar proofs of evolution from classification, comparative anatomy, embryology, palæontology, and the distribution of animals and plants. Many recent discoveries unknown to Darwin are also brought forward. One charm of this part of the book is the wealth of original illustration, the author rightly claiming in the preface that figures are often more convincing than language. These are particularly novel in the section upon man, where numerous woodcuts illustrate the very amusing vestiges of arboreal habits in the feet and hands of infants—showing that every nursery may become a centre of scientific research. The section upon "Artificial Selection" is also cleverly illustrated with the remarkable extremes of type produced by breeding and domestication. In palæontology the choice is not quite as good, and we notice as a minor error that Scott's deer-skull series (fig. 88) is credited to Heilprin. All this historical section is in fact admirably done, and cannot fail to be attractive and valuable "as a merely educational exposition of Darwinian teaching." We trust it will carry the general reader into the more serious pages of volume ii.

The general reader, however, above all others, is entitled to a full exposition of Darwin's most mature opinions, and not merely of his "selection theory." We cannot find that at any point Mr. Romanes clearly brings out the great revolution in Darwin's ideas unfolded in his 'Animals and Plants under Domestication' (1875). The gist of chapter 24, vol. ii., of this work is that evolution has been by Natural Selection, *aided in an important manner by the inherited effects of use and disuse.* This committed Darwin to the very Lamarckian theory which had been wholly rejected by him in 1858. Moreover, the author (p. 255) appears to share the inability, which seems to be constitutional among English writers, to distinguish between the relative merits of Buffon, Erasmus Darwin, and Lamarck, as to the introduction of the theory which now bears the name of Lamarck. Upon strict laws of priority, the credit belongs not to the elder Darwin, as the author intimates, but to Buffon, as recently shown by M. Lanessan in the *Revue Scientifique.* The facts are, that Buffon largely originated these Lamarckian ideas, but he recanted or "hedged" as an evolutionist under ecclesiastical pressure. Erasmus Darwin later expanded the ideas of this distinguished zoölogist in a suggestive but very tentative manner. Lamarck formulated them into a definite theory of the causes of evolution, and boldly combated the special-creationists through a long period of social and scientific ostracism, ending in his death. With the others, the theory was a matter of passing speculation, with him it was a profound conviction; his name, therefore, should stand.

The four closing chapters of the book include a very clear account of the nature and limits of the powers of natural and sexual selection, and a reconsideration of the older and newer criticisms. Here the author takes the position, which has exposed him to much assault in England, that, after his prolonged studies, he is *par excellence* the interpreter of Darwin's actual views, and that others who have made the subject less of a direct study have misunderstood and misstated the great naturalist. There is much truth in this; one recalls some of Lankester's letters in *Nature* as cases in point. On p. 276 he expands the perfectly legitimate distinction that natural selection is primarily a theory of the origin of adaptations, and thus, secondarily, explains the origin of the species which present them. He considers selection as having passed the theoretic stage; hereafter it is to be ranked as one of the natural causes of evolution. This opinion is supported by a complete résumé of all the strongest arguments for the survival of the fittest adaptations, and we are brought up to date with the recent researches of Poulton and others upon protective and warning colors and mimicry.

The important question as to the nature and origin of the useful or useless variations which Nature is believed to select or reject, was left open by Darwin and is not elucidated by Romanes. He rightly says that these variations were expressly regarded as promiscuous in the original selection theory. He admits (p. 336, foot-note) the mere possibility that a definite direction may be given to variation by the inheritance of the effects of use and disuse, and therefore abandons the later ideas of Darwin which we have quoted above, although he is not ready to follow Weismann in his absolute rejection of the Lamarckian principle of use inheritance. The reviewer, in common with many others in this country, does not share the author's doubts as to the lack of evidence for definite variation along the main path of evolution, or, to quote his words, "that what we see in nature is the net outcome of the development of all the happy chances; . . . and if we had a similar record of all the other variations, it would be seen that possibly not one such prophecy in a thousand is destined to be fulfilled." Nor is it true that the Duke of Argyll's much ridiculed doctrine of "prophetic germs" is effectually disposed of by evidence, even if it falls under the force of Mr. Romanes's logic. It is a serious defect in this work, considered as a guide to the uninitiated, that the author adheres so broadly to the fortuitous variation idea, in the face of the abundant evidence from palæontology. In the hard parts of animals, at least, nature is extremely economical in the matter of variation, and we look in vain for the purely conjectural nine hundred and ninety-nine alternatives which extreme selectionists like Wallace and Weismann suppose to be discarded for the happy one. In the second volume we are promised a fuller discussion of the problem of definite *vs.* indefinite variation, and of the evidence for a large class of definite or purposeful variations which stimulate our search for some factors, Lamarckian or otherwise, to account for them.

One word upon the author's theistic position. In speaking of the change exerted by the discovery of evolution upon human thought, he says: "Nevertheless, in my opinion, it is a change of a non-theistic as distinguished from an a-theistic kind. It has rendered impossible the appearance in literature of any future Paley, Bell, or Chalmers; but it has done nothing in the way of negativing that belief in a Supreme Being which it was the object of these authors to substantiate." Lack of space prevents fuller quotation from the forcible pages of the closing chapter, which reflects the present period of harmony between religion and science. Altogether, the merits of this work far outweigh its defects; it is the best modern handbook of evolution.

Familiar Studies in Homer. By Agnes M. Clerke. Longmans, Green & Co.

THIS admirable book undertakes to do, in much less space and with the advantage of the knowledge gained by the excavations at Hissarlik, Mycenæ, Egypt, and Asia Minor, what Buchholz attempted as pioneer some thirty years ago, in the 'Homerische Realien.' Some of the chapters of the 'Familiar Studies' have appeared before as magazine articles in *Macmillan's Magazine*, *Nature*, and the *Quarterly Review*, and have there proved attractive to the general public. The book is a good example of mastery of the results of a vast amount of special research not made by the author, but thoroughly familiar to and skilfully handled by her; and we are reminded afresh, as we peruse her interesting pages, what a wonderful quantity of detail and minute information great Homer carries easily along in the strong stream of his verse. Strange that the greatest of poets should be such a storehouse of facts and information for the archæologist!

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We were much interested by a remark in Miss Clerke's preface which we believe to be as true as it is valuable. She says that her chief object is to promote a "non-erudite study" of Homer. "Greek enough," she says, "to read 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey' in the original can be learned with comparative ease." This last statement is entirely true. It ought to be the case in these days with all intelligent pupils who have studied Greek three years, that they can read Homer with considerable ease, and have read enough of both 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey' to be keenly interested in Miss Clerke's book. In such an achievement lies an ample justification for the study of Greek.

We shall most readily give an idea of the book by subjoining the titles of several of the chapters. Under the title, "Homer as a Poet and a Problem," the author declares for the eleventh century B. C. as the date when the 'Iliad' took form, and she is inclined to name Thessaly as the birthplace of the 'Iliad,' and Peloponnesus the birthplace of the 'Odyssey.' There was no Asiatic Greece, she thinks, at that date, in condition to produce a Homer. In summing up the results of a century of study of the Homeric question, Miss Clerke aptly says that "instinctive appreciation has got the better of verbal criticism." The truth could hardly be better stated. The chapter on "Homeric Astronomy" deals too much in technical detail to be summarized here; but the chapters on the "Dog" and the "Horse" in Homer are models of vivacity, of industry, and of research. Miss Clerke well brings out the strange double character or opposing traits which readily make the dog an object of contempt or of tender love. She weaves into a flowing narrative, into which she succeeds in introducing many of the finest passages of the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey,' the extracts from either poem in which the dog and the horse are mentioned, and throughout her book the quotations gain in interest because so well chosen from a variety of translators. Derby, Way, Worsley, and Miss Clerke herself are the translators most often quoted. We are inclined to agree with Miss Clerke that the different feeling with which the dog is regarded in the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey' of itself suffices to establish diverse authorship for the two poems. Here is the summing up of the chapter on the "Horse": "The makers of the 'Iliad,' whether few or many, were at least unanimous in their fervid admiration for the horse. The verses glow with a kind of rapture of enjoyment that describe his strength, beauty, and swiftness, his eager spirit and fine nervous organization, his docility to trusted guidance, his intelligent participation in human contentions and pursuits."

Under the head of "Homeric Zoölogy," Homer's "sane and rational" way of regarding animals, compared with the extravagances common in other prehistoric literature, is noted. His intense sympathy with brute nature is based upon the appreciation of real, not upon the ascription of imaginary, qualities. No poet, before or since, ever displayed in this field such a wealth of acute and accurate observation. The correctness of his descriptions is the more wonderful because the various animals had not their character fixed in literature. The chapter on "Flowers and Trees" is brief because Homer did not associate sentiment with flowers. Poppies, hyacinths, crocuses, violets are the flowers of Homer, with mention by implication, in compound words, of the rose and the lily. An interesting topic is "Homeric Meals." The Homeric appetite was strong and simple. Roast meat, bread, and wine were the staple of the heroes' diet. Sheep, goats, and swine came next in order to roasted beef, and fish were eaten only from constraint of hunger. Barley, the "marrow of men," made up the bulk of food on board the ship, and was probably eaten boiled with water as porridge. Wheat was ground into flour in little hand-mills, and the loaves or cakes were probably baked on heated stones. Grapes and olives are the only fruits which figure in the 'Iliad.' Three meals a day were the full Homeric number, though the breakfast was often eaten as one meal with the dinner. When taken separately, it consisted of a piece of bread soaked in wine. The chief meal of the day was the supper, when labor was done.

We have thus indicated the character of the 'Familiar Studies.' It will be evident how valuable a companion to the study of Greek History, as well as to the thorough knowledge of the Homeric poems, the book will prove. In fact, we know of no other book in English which fills its place, and we recommend it warmly to the attention and use of all classical teachers as well as of all students of the Homeric life.

The Speech of Monkeys. By R. L. Garner. Charles L. Webster & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. 217.

As an entertaining account of experiences of an enthusiast in attempts at learning from monkeys whether they have a language, this volume may be somewhat successful. As a scientific record of original discoveries, it has little value. The author has been before the public for some time, has talked and written a great deal on his subject, and has secured a large amount of advertising from the press, all of which has led to expectation of important additions to science. What he offers is full of disappointment. That the lower animals are able to communicate with one another in various ways is well known; an extensive literature awaits the student who attacks the subject systematically. Portions of the languages of lower vertebrates will be recalled by most of us. A familiar instance is that of domestic fowls, which have a number of sounds the imports of which are easily recognized. They have a cry of warning for the hawk, a cackle of satisfaction after the egg is laid, another of indignation at being disturbed, or a third in dread of something not seen distinctly; a song of happiness, a challenge, a protest at being handled, a squawk of fright when caught, a call to partake of food, a request for more, a cluck to call the brood together, a doleful cry when lost, and the love notes of the sexes. Most vertebrates have sounds that answer similar purposes, the range or variety being in accord with the necessities of their lives. Because of greater similarity of structure it has been supposed that in the language of monkeys there might be a nearer approach to that of man than in lower mammals. Recent inventions for recording and reproducing sounds have furnished the means of comparisons, and important discoveries are, no doubt, not far off.

Judging from what Mr. Garner has published, he might have done more had he studied the hens. He speaks of words but means sounds, since he says the language of monkeys is purely one of sounds, and that they talk with one another on a limited number of subjects with very few words. Such as he records are scattered among the pages. A certain monkey has an alarm sound, written "e-c-g-k," and another a sound of warning when not afraid, written "c-h-i." A word first translated milk, then food, and said to be used in a still wider sense, is found also to mean water, and still later drink in its broad sense, and possibly thirst. This word the author writes "wh-oo-w," and thinks it to mean food in general. In his opinion it is likewise a salutation or peace-making term—food, as he puts it, being the central thought of every monkey's life; and further, when used imperatively, it appears to mean give. He says he at first believed the word for food or hunger was used for apple, carrot, bread, and banana, but the phonograph showed slight variations, and he now thinks these may indicate the different kinds of food the monkey had in mind. It might be suggested here that they may indicate differences in the amount of filling undergone by the monkey. The word for weather he has not yet settled; that for love is only in the sense of ardent friendship. His discoveries culminate in the word "*no*," which is accompanied by shaking the head, though the sign is at times attended by a chuckling sound and at others by a soft whimpering sound. "The fact that this sign is common to both man and simian I regard as more than a mere coincidence, and I believe that in this sign I have found the psycho-physical basis of expression." If to the foregoing questionable words we add a chuckle to express pleasure, a good-natured growl, as a critic described it, for laughter, "ngu-u-w" of the Rhesus, and "wuh-uh-uh" of the Mangaby, both meaning food, and "ch-eu-ye," a word for drink, we shall complete the vocabulary given.

The exhibit is very unsatisfactory. The author gives considerable notice of what he proposes to do, does a great deal of talking around his subject, and makes an excessive use of the great *I*, but gives little or no evidence of accomplishing anything. The most vivid impression left by his book is, that he has ventured upon something entirely too deep for him.

A History of Peru. By Clements R. Markham. [Latin-American Republics Series.] Chicago: Charles H. Sergel & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. xviii, 556. Maps and illustrations.

A SERIES of histories of the Latin-American Republics at the present time is a commendable enterprise. While the intense interest in our Southern neighbors, which for a time was epidemic, has somewhat subsided, it has by no means disappeared. Transient enthusiasm has but given place to a more earnest, more sober inquiry into the life and conditions of South and Central America; and the man of letters, the historian, the archæologist, find here a rich and almost virgin field. But to realize fully the harvest it is necessary to untangle a maze of political changes as bewildering as the struggles of mediæval Europe. Hence a series of histories written now, although we cannot expect them to be wholly trustworthy until the archives of the Southern capitals have been ransacked, will serve a useful purpose by plotting in some manner the course which the stream of events has taken. In the present work there are not a few errors which we must condone, and yet, taken altogether, it is a most creditable performance. There is probably no English-speaking person in the world better fitted to handle this subject than Mr. Markham, and he brings to the task not only personal acquaintance with the country, large information, and broad scholarship, but a warm sympathy for Peru and the Peruvians. Not alone the circumstances of a tumultuous po-

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litical career, but the heart of the nation stands revealed as well, interpreting a history which otherwise would be often unintelligible. The rise and fall of the Inca Empire is briefly and clearly told. The character of Pizarro and his followers is justly depicted, omitting the usual cant about demons and devils. We see their weakness, their cruelty, but also their better qualities, and can understand the motives of expediency that led to many acts which in the light of subsequent events appear to have been such wretched wrongs.

The progress of Peruvian history has been divided into epochs, which renders it peculiarly easy to follow. After the conquest and the strife between Pizarro and Almagro, we have the period of attempted reconstruction under the "New Laws" which Las Casas fondly hoped would introduce a wiser and more humane government. Then comes the period of colonization based upon commercial interests, which continued during a large part of the epoch of the Viceroys, from 1555 to 1821. The rebellion of Tupac Amaru is given its full moral value, which was important, coming as it did on the eve of the revolution which overthrew the power of Spain. The two wars for independence, under Gen. San Martin and Gen. Bolivar, respectively, are treated in considerable detail, and then comes the succession of republican presidents and the disastrous war with Chili. Recent events, including the famous "Grace contract," which wiped out the national debt of nearly £52,000,000, and other transactions as late as 1891, bring the work down to date. There are additional chapters, full of interest, upon the people, the literature, and the wealth of Peru. An appendix contains some statistics of Peruvian trade and a translation of the Constitution of Peru.

One valuable feature of the book is the brief biographical sketch and characterization of each of the prominent personages entering into the narrative. These are usually satisfactory, although in the case of Gen. Bolivar the author has joined hands with the iconoclasts. Bolivar is still too enigmatical a character to be denounced as nothing more than an ambitious adventurer. Like Cæsar, he was a gay youth, a brave general, a consummate tactician; and, like him, he held a firm rein upon government while declining kingly honors. From what we know of him now he seems a bundle of paradoxes, and until some one has searched the true man out of the dusty piles of documents in Carácas, Bogotá, and other South American cities, we cannot pretend to estimate him fairly.

The inset map of Peru, Ecuador, and Bolivia which accompanies the book is discreditable to the publishers. To point out its errors would be tedious; they glare forth from every section of it. If the publishers could not have done better on their own account, they might at least have availed themselves of the excellent and wonderfully correct map of Stieler. There is no excuse for such careless cartography in these days.

Portraits d'Écrivains. Par René Doumic. Paris: P. Delaplane. 12mo, pp. 330.

M. DOUMIC has performed the difficult task of saying something new and attractive on a hackneyed theme; something worth reading in regard to a few of the most prominent novelists and dramatists of the Second Empire. If he expended his talent on a systematic study of contemporary French literature, he could produce a valuable and interesting critical work. His style is epigrammatic, but not in the forced and mechanical manner which characterizes so much of current French criticism. He possesses another quality which is none too frequent among his compatriots—moral dignity; not the sham morality meant for the gallery, but something genuine and sincere. It is this quality which lends weight to his judgment of writers who, while depicting vice in its most alluring colors, are all the while protesting their devotion to virtue. But while partaking strongly of an ethical element, his criticism is none the less based, in the main, on literary canons, and very sound ones.

His first three essays are on Dumas the younger, Émile Augier, and Victorien Sardou. The contemporary drama, he says, is embodied in Dumas. All the progress it has made is due to him, and it is due to him that it has not progressed further. His great gift is a marvellous faculty of observation, which enables him to pierce through appearances to the reality that underlies them; but the naked reality is not a thing of beauty, and he soon discovers that the method of direct observation does not suffice. Hence he throws himself upon science—on physiology, chemistry, and the like. But science without the scientific spirit, observes M. Doumic, is mere fooling. Along with his pseudo-scientific curiosity, Dumas has a trait of quasi-religious mysticism, which constitutes his stock-in-trade as a social reformer. He considers that the dramatic author has a charge of souls and must not fear to pose as moralist and lawgiver. He aims to establish what he calls "the useful drama." This theory of art M. Doumic pronounces no less false and much more gross than the theory of art for the sake of art. Whatever is only useful is thrown aside after it has subserved its uses; on the other hand, the great works of art which the drama of all times and of all countries has handed down to us probably never served any use at all. Social questions are never solved by the dramatist; it is only when they have reached maturity that they appear on the stage. The means at the disposal of the dramatic author are not available for social reform. Another telling remark of M. Doumic is that the language in which Dumas couches his preachings is not fit to be addressed to those who could still derive any benefit from them. It must not be supposed, however, that M. Doumic does not do full justice to the literary power and dramatic skill of Dumas. He gives him credit for having banished from the stage the puppets of Scribe, while recognizing Scribe's technical perfection, regarded from the artisan's point of view.

In Émile Augier, M. Doumic recognizes the chief agent of the transformation by which the modern comedy of manners succeeded the comedy of character, which had been brought to perfection and exhausted by Molière. Although the plays of Augier proceed from those of Dumas, they differ from them as widely as could be imagined. While Dumas, as already shown, subordinates his drama to his moral prepossessions, Augier has no theories to enforce, and makes no attempt to use the stage as a pulpit. If in his plays vice is chastised and virtue is rewarded, that is only a concession to the public taste and to the prejudices of the official censor of plays. His happy dénouements are manifestly out of joint with the body of the plays. M. Doumic sums up by saying that Augier did for the stage what Balzac did for the novel, and that when Dumas spoke of combining Scribe with Balzac, he described the works of Augier rather than his own.

Concerning Sardou, M. Doumic has very little to say that is good. Sardou's characters, we are told, are perfect abstractions; he never stops at the line where a portrait becomes a caricature. If his characters were consistent caricatures, we might accept them for what they are; but we have no sooner become familiar with their traits than they flop over and act in a way quite the reverse of what we had a right to expect. The action of his plays is as factitious as it is puerile. At any moment a single word would suffice to explain everything and to resolve the intrigue; if none of the characters pronounce the word, it is only because the author is on hand to stop them. Sardou took Scribe for his master, and excels in the theatrical sleight-of-hand of which a perfect example is found in his "Pattes de Mouche," where a piece of paper passed from one person to another fills three acts without wearying the audience. Sardou's chief defect, according to our critic, is that his plays are a mixture of comedy, drama, and vaudeville. First he gives us two acts in gay and lively colors, then two more in which everything is changed to pathos and terror, anguish and tears; the fifth act explains it all—everything is all right, everything is for the best in the best of worlds. And there is no necessary logical connection between these various discordant parts.

Four of M. Doumic's essays are effective reviews of as many novelists. The first is Feuillet, whom Jules de Goncourt dubbed "a family Musset," and who, by common consent, is considered the novelist laureate of aristocratic society. Many writers have attempted to describe the manners of the *haute volée;* according to M. Doumic, Feuillet is the only one who has succeeded, and has even succeeded in the more difficult problem of going beneath the surface and depicting the inmost soul of his characters. The society he undertakes to describe is in the peculiar situation of being, to all appearance, attached to a religion the spirit of which has ceased to influence it, and allegiance to which prevents it from receiving other beliefs which might perform the functions that the old faith has ceased to fulfil. The dead remnants of the old ideal block the way which might lead to a new one. Feuillet wrote during the long space of more than forty years, and a comparison of his later with his earlier works reveals a deterioration not only of morals, but even of manners—a disintegration of society.

M. Doumic is very severe in his judgment of Edmond and Jules de Goncourt, which he closes by saying that their work has been a most persevering, most conscientious, and most laborious effort to empty literature of its contents. He is, if possible, even more severe in his criticism of Zola, whom he makes the subject of a careful and suggestive study, although he considers him already a matter of yesterday. Not the least salient trait of Zola, he says, is his vulgarity, or rather the commonness of his nature. Whenever he speaks in his own person, it is in the tone of the flattest triviality. He lacks the most elementary tact. His obstinacy and his narrowness of mind have given him a prodigious self-confidence and an imperturbable assurance. He has but little taste and but a moderate respect for literature. He has never known it, and has never felt the need of knowing it. He is devoid, to the last degree, of all critical sense; he is incapable of following an abstract idea; his style is that in which a mason would speak of architecture or a house-painter would explain the theory of complementary colors. His habits of observation are very superficial;

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he is very proud because, having to write about miners, he has been down in a mine, and again because, having to write about railroads, he took a trip on a locomotive. Even so, he is often satisfied to describe things at second hand. In describing his characters he contents himself with seizing the most apparent trait; of what lies behind he knows nothing. The only beings he succeeds in depicting are the most primitive, whose intellectual life is *nil*. Hence his incapacity to picture the higher classes of society. His analysis does not rise above the intellectual level of a roofer. His world is not the real one, but a continual deformation of reality; such a world as would be that of Balzac seen with the eyes of Victor Hugo. For, according to all appearances, he is by birth and by education one of the Romantics. Like them, he has a taste for the marvellous and is fond of personifying inanimate nature. Life and the world he beholds through a magnifying hallucination, and what he mistakes for reality is only a sort of perpetual nightmare.

M. Doumic gives up his longest chapter to warm and unstinted praise of Alphonse Daudet. We shall not follow him, as we have already gone too far, and he is not quite as entertaining when he approves as when he condemns. Considerations of space have forced us to string together his observations in such a way as to make them appear much balder than they do in his pages, where they are supported and enforced by an abundance of citations and illustrations, to which we refer the reader in the confident expectation that he will recognize in M. Doumic a brilliant and competent literary critic.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Atkinson, Edward. Taxation and Work. Putnams. $1.25.
Austen, Jane. Northanger Abbey. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Austen, Jane. Persuasion. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Belfield, H. H. Selections from De Quincey. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 42 cents.
Brewster, Marian. Under the Water-Oaks. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Bubier, E. T. Questions and Answers about Electricity. D. Van Nostrand Co. 50 cents.
Castlemon, H. Marcy the Refugee. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. $1.25.
Cooper, Harriet C. Short Studies in Botany for Children. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Crozier, A. A. A Dictionary of Botanical Terms. Henry Holt & Co. $2.40.
Davis, Mrs. R. H. Kent Hampden. Scribners. $1.
Davis, R. H. The West from a Car-Window. Harpers. $1.25.
Deighton, K. Johnson's Life of Milton. Macmillan. 40 cents.
Dickens, Charles. Barnaby Rudge. Macmillan. $1.

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Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s Saturday Books.

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